



This is a digital copy of a book that was preserved for generations on library shelves before it was carefully scanned by Google as part of a project to make the world's books discoverable online.

It has survived long enough for the copyright to expire and the book to enter the public domain. A public domain book is one that was never subject to copyright or whose legal copyright term has expired. Whether a book is in the public domain may vary country to country. Public domain books are our gateways to the past, representing a wealth of history, culture and knowledge that's often difficult to discover.

Marks, notations and other marginalia present in the original volume will appear in this file - a reminder of this book's long journey from the publisher to a library and finally to you.

Usage guidelines

Google is proud to partner with libraries to digitize public domain materials and make them widely accessible. Public domain books belong to the public and we are merely their custodians. Nevertheless, this work is expensive, so in order to keep providing this resource, we have taken steps to prevent abuse by commercial parties, including placing technical restrictions on automated querying.

We also ask that you:

- + *Make non-commercial use of the files* We designed Google Book Search for use by individuals, and we request that you use these files for personal, non-commercial purposes.
- + *Refrain from automated querying* Do not send automated queries of any sort to Google's system: If you are conducting research on machine translation, optical character recognition or other areas where access to a large amount of text is helpful, please contact us. We encourage the use of public domain materials for these purposes and may be able to help.
- + *Maintain attribution* The Google "watermark" you see on each file is essential for informing people about this project and helping them find additional materials through Google Book Search. Please do not remove it.
- + *Keep it legal* Whatever your use, remember that you are responsible for ensuring that what you are doing is legal. Do not assume that just because we believe a book is in the public domain for users in the United States, that the work is also in the public domain for users in other countries. Whether a book is still in copyright varies from country to country, and we can't offer guidance on whether any specific use of any specific book is allowed. Please do not assume that a book's appearance in Google Book Search means it can be used in any manner anywhere in the world. Copyright infringement liability can be quite severe.

About Google Book Search

Google's mission is to organize the world's information and to make it universally accessible and useful. Google Book Search helps readers discover the world's books while helping authors and publishers reach new audiences. You can search through the full text of this book on the web at <http://books.google.com/>

NYPL RESEARCH LIBRARIES



3 3433 07598631 9



SSA
NATION



THE
Addresses and Journal of Proceedings
OF THE
NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.
SESSION OF THE YEAR 1877,
IN
LOUISVILLE, KENTUCKY.

PUBLISHED BY THE ASSOCIATION.

SALEM, OHIO:
PRINTED BY ALLAN K. TATUM,
OFFICE OF THE NATIONAL TEACHER.
1877.



NOTICE.

The Committee on Publication take pleasure in saying that the last sheets of this volume were sent to the binder by the middle of November, a month earlier than the sheets of the volume for 1876 were sent. When the printing began but few papers had been received, and some of these had been returned, at the request of the writers, for revision. The absence of the papers caused some delay and the marring of the symmetry of the volume by the printing of the delayed papers out of their proper place. The insertion of these papers out of order was done rather than not do all that was possible to comply with the request of the Board of Directors, expressed in a formal resolution, to have the volume ready by December 1st. To make the records of the Association complete the Proceedings of the Department of School Superintendence at the special meeting held in Washington, March 1, 2, 3, are published with those of the regular meeting.

This volume will be found to be one of the largest and most interesting of those yet issued by the Association. The price has been fixed as follows:

Single volume sent by mail postpaid - - - \$2.00

Lots of 5 or more sent at expense of purchaser, each volume - \$1.25

Only 1000 copies have been printed. Volumes may be ordered either from the Secretary, W. D. HENKLE, Salem, Ohio, or from the Treasurer, J. ORMOND WILSON, Washington, D. C.

November 12, 1877.

W. D. HENKLE,	} Committee on Publication.
E. S. JOYNES,	
S. H. WHITE,	
JOHN KRAUS,	
CHAS. Y. LACY, J. P. WICKERSHAM,	

CONTENTS:

PROCEEDINGS OF THE GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

Address of Welcome, by Mayor Charles D. Jacob.....	5
Appointment of Assistant Secretaries and Treasurers	6
Inaugural Address of Pres. M. A. Newell.....	6
Invitations.....	15
Appointment of Committees.....	18
Silent Forces in Education, by J. F. Blackinton.....	19
The Study of English as Introductory to the Study of Latin and Greek, by Thomas R. Price. [For address see p. 262.].....	22
Report of Programme Committee.....	22
Department of Transportation, Motion in reference to.....	22
Miscellaneous Business.....	23
The Relation of the Preparatory or Grammar School to College and University, by W. R. Webb. [For address see p. 70].....	23
Appointment of Committees.....	23
The Place of English in the Higher Education, by A. B. Stark.....	24
Election of Officers.....	32
The Study of Social Economy in Public Schools, by Maurice Kirby. [For abstract of this address see p. 82.].....	33
The Limits of Education, by W. R. Garrett.....	33
Some Reasons why Drawing should be taught in our Public Schools, by L. S. Thompson.....	40
Bureau of Education, Report on.....	53
National Museum, Report on.....	56
Educational Interests of Texas, by Rufus C. Burseson.....	58
Discussion of the Paper.....	63
Life-members, New.....	66
Educated Mind—Its Mission and Responsibility, by George W. Hill [Paper not furnished.].....	67
National-Bureau Committee.....	67
Reports of Committees.....	67

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER INSTRUCTION.

The Elective System, by Wm. Le Roy Broun.....	87
The Class System, by Noah Porter.....	95
Election of Officers.....	106
American Revision and Adaptation of Foreign Text-books, by Caskie Harrison.....	106
Noah Porter's Paper [See p. 95.].....	121
Prof. Raddatz's Report.....	122

DEPARTMENT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS.

Opening Address, by Louis Soldan.....	139
Discussion.....	145

Range and Limits of Normal-School Work, by E. C. Hewett.....	146
Discussion.....	154
Appointment of Nominating Committee.....	155
Election of Officers.....	155
Common-School Studies in Normal Schools, by J. C. Greenough.....	155
Attacks on Normal Schools, by C. C. Rounds.....	159
A Few Queries concerning some of the Details of Normal-School Work, by S. H. White.....	167
Discussion.....	171

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Opening Remarks, by H. A. M. Henderson.....	174
The English Language in Elementary Schools, by Zalmon Richards.....	175
Moral Training, by R. H. Rivers.....	180
Appointment of Nominating Committee.....	186
The Kindergarten (its Use and Abuse in America), by John Kraus.....	186
The Kindergarten and the Mission of Women, etc., by Mrs. Maria Kraus-Boelte.....	207
Discussion.....	216
Election of Officers.....	217
First Lessons in Reading, by Lydia D. Hampton [Paper not furnished.]...	217

DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

Pres. Manly Miles's letter.....	218
Relations of the Common School to Industrial Education, by S. R. Thompson.....	218
Discussion	221
Systematic Manual Labor in Industrial Education, by Geo. T. Fairchild...	224
Appointment of Nominating Committee.....	231
The Russian System of Mechanical Art Education, etc., by J. D. Runkle...	231
Discussion	235
The Relation of Manual Labor to Technological Training, by Charles O. Thompson.....	237
Election of Officers.....	252

DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENCE.

Proceedings of Special Meeting at Washington, March 1, 2, 3, 1877.....	253
Proceedings of Regular Meeting at Louisville, Aug. 14, 15, 16, 1877.....	260

Constitution	271
Life-Directors and Life-Members.....	274
List of members at Louisville.....	276
Board of Directors, Proceedings of.....	282
Treasurer's Report.....	283
Secretary's Report.....	285
Publication Committee's Report.....	286
Calendar of Meetings.....	287
Officers for 1877-8.....	288

GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

First Day's Proceedings.

MORNING SESSION.

The Seventeenth Annual Meeting of the National Educational Association met in Liederkrantz Hall, in Louisville, Ky., at 10 o'clock, A. M., Tuesday, August 14th, 1877.

President M. A. NEWELL called the Association to order and prayer was offered by the Rev. J. L. BURROWS. The Association was then welcomed by Mayor CHAS. D. JACOB in the following

ADDRESS.

MR. PRESIDENT, LADIES, AND GENTLEMEN OF THE CONVENTION :

It is narrated of one of the Governors of Kentucky that when a gathering of teachers similar to this was about to be convened in Frankfort, and he was requested to deliver the address of welcome, he promptly and pointedly declined, saying that "he had needs to be taught and not attempt to teach."

Those were sensible and natural words, and yet, ladies and gentlemen, for the very reason that I and so many millions of others "*need* to be taught," am I here to hail with delight the advent to our city of a band who "attend unto wisdom and bow their ears to understanding;" for never before, in her hundred years of existence, has our country had more need of wisdom and moderation.

The demonetization of silver, the labor question, the amendment of the bankrupt law, and the repeal of the resumption act are most momentous subjects, and yet after all the chief requisite is the understanding to appreciate and the knowledge properly to legislate upon them.

Knowledge is power, enlightenment, progress. Ignorance is desolation, heart-burnings, anarchy.

The life of the teacher is one ceaseless roll of trials and tribulations, with nothing but the affection and advancement of his conscientious pupils to reward him. Underpaid and his labors misunderstood, he is frequently subject to the whims and caprices of men of mental capacity inferior to his own, but who being "in authority" harrass him with their petty tyranny. In short,

"From place to place,
Whether he wanders forth abroad, or knows
No change but of home-nature and grace,
Still he is as one seeking for repose—
A man of many thoughts, a man of many woes."

Range and Limits of Normal-School Work, by E. C. Hewett.....	146
Discussion.....	154
Appointment of Nominating Committee.....	155
Election of Officers.....	155
Common-School Studies in Normal Schools, by J. C. Greenough.....	155
Attacks on Normal Schools, by C. C. Rounds.....	159
A Few Queries concerning some of the Details of Normal-School Work, by S. H. White.....	167
Discussion.....	171

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

Opening Remarks, by H. A. M. Henderson.....	174
The English Language in Elementary Schools, by Zalmon Richards.....	175
Moral Training, by R. H. Rivers.....	180
Appointment of Nominating Committee.....	186
The Kindergarten (its Use and Abuse in America), by John Kraus.....	186
The Kindergarten and the Mission of Women, etc., by Mrs. Maria Kraus-Boelte.....	207
Discussion.....	216
Election of Officers.....	217
First Lessons in Reading, by Lydia D. Hampton [Paper not furnished.]...	217

DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

Pres. Manly Miles's letter.....	218
Relations of the Common School to Industrial Education, by S. R. Thompson.....	218
Discussion	221
Systematic Manual Labor in Industrial Education, by Geo. T. Fairchild...	224
Appointment of Nominating Committee.....	231
The Russian System of Mechanical Art Education, etc., by J. D. Runkle...	231
Discussion	235
The Relation of Manual Labor to Technological Training, by Charles O. Thompson.....	237
Election of Officers.....	252

DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENCE.

Proceedings of Special Meeting at Washington, March 1, 2, 3, 1877.....	253
Proceedings of Regular Meeting at Louisville, Aug. 14, 15, 16, 1877.....	260

Constitution	271
Life-Directors and Life-Members.....	274
List of members at Louisville.....	276
Board of Directors, Proceedings of.....	282
Treasurer's Report.....	283
Secretary's Report.....	285
Publication Committee's Report.....	286
Calendar of Meetings.....	287
Officers for 1877-8.....	288

GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

First Day's Proceedings.

MORNING SESSION.

The Seventeenth Annual Meeting of the National Educational Association met in Liederkrantz Hall, in Louisville, Ky., at 10 o'clock, A. M., Tuesday, August 14th, 1877.

President M. A. NEWELL called the Association to order and prayer was offered by the Rev. J. L. BURROWS. The Association was then welcomed by Mayor CHAS. D. JACOB in the following

ADDRESS.

MR. PRESIDENT, LADIES, AND GENTLEMEN OF THE CONVENTION :

It is narrated of one of the Governors of Kentucky that when a gathering of teachers similar to this was about to be convened in Frankfort, and he was requested to deliver the address of welcome, he promptly and pointedly declined, saying that "he had needs to be taught and not attempt to teach."

Those were sensible and natural words, and yet, ladies and gentlemen, for the very reason that I and so many millions of others "need to be taught," am I here to hail with delight the advent to our city of a band who "attend unto wisdom and bow their ears to understanding;" for never before, in her hundred years of existence, has our country had more need of wisdom and moderation.

The demonetization of silver, the labor question, the amendment of the bankrupt law, and the repeal of the resumption act are most momentous subjects, and yet after all the chief requisite is the understanding to appreciate and the knowledge properly to legislate upon them.

Knowledge is power, enlightenment, progress. Ignorance is desolation, heart-burnings, anarchy.

The life of the teacher is one ceaseless roll of trials and tribulations, with nothing but the affection and advancement of his conscientious pupils to reward him. Underpaid and his labors misunderstood, he is frequently subject to the whims and caprices of men of mental capacity inferior to his own, but who being "in authority" harrass him with their petty tyranny. In short,

"From place to place,
Whether he wanders forth abroad, or knows
No change but of home-nature and grace,
Still he is as one seeking for repose—
A man of many thoughts, a man of many woes."

But if during life he has sorrows and afflictions, oh, how glorious is the end of the faithful teacher, who, looking death calmly in the face and reviewing his past career, thanks his God without any taint of Pharisaism, that his life has been devoted alone to the development of all that is pure and holy in his fellow-being—

“Then
Call to mind from whence ye sprung,
Ye were not formed to live the life of brutes,
But virtue to pursue and knowledge high.”

President NEWELL responded briefly to this welcome:

The following Assistant Secretaries were appointed: First Assistant Secretary, L. S. THOMPSON, of Ohio; Second Assistant Secretary, T. MARCELLUS MARSHALL, of W. Va.; Railway Secretary, S. T. LOWRY, of Ky.; also, A. ARMSTRONG, of Iowa, and WALTER KENNEDY, of Ky., as Assistant Treasurers.

The President of the Association, Hon. M. A. NEWELL, Superintendent of Public Instruction of Maryland, then read the following Inaugural Address:

THE PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

That free institutions, resting on the basis of universal suffrage, cannot be perpetuated unless universal suffrage is accompanied and stimulated by universal intelligence, is a truism which I should not be justified in repeating before this audience, were it not that the events of the last few weeks have converted a dormant truism into a pregnant truth. “Had the public schools done their whole duty,” said an intelligent fellow-citizen in my hearing, one morning after a night of riot, “had the public schools done their whole duty, such an outbreak could not have occurred; even the most ignorant should have known that grievances real or imaginary, in a free country, cannot be redressed by lawlessness and outrage; and that even if temporary relief could be obtained by such means, the remedy would be worse than the disease.” “And,” replied another intelligent citizen, “had it not been for the public schools, the results of the strike would have been still more disastrous. The battle of the pigmies would have been the battle of the giants. It was the good sense of an immense majority of working people, created, fostered, and developed by public education, that saved us from the terrors of the French Commune.”

The second speaker was doubtless right. Had educated intelligence been less widely diffused than it is, had all, or a great part of the labor of the country, taken up arms against capital, there would have been a revolution to which history offers no parallel. But was not the first speaker right, too, to a certain extent. Would such an outbreak have been possible if the working-men engaged in it had been men accustomed and trained to think as well as to toil? And if the public school of to-day has any special function, as distinguished from systems or modes of education which have preceded it, is it not to add thought, intelligence, to labor? Have we entirely succeeded in effecting this union? Let the last weeks of July answer. Can we recognize in the wild outbursts of the mob that howled around the lurid fires whose smoke eclipsed for a moment the sun of American civilization, any higher intelligence than in the South-Sea Islander, who beats his fetish because it will not answer his prayers?

The first gust is over. It was but a summer flaw. The ship was caught.

unprepared and lost a spar or two. The damage will soon be repaired, and the "goodly vessel" will be even stronger than before. But we are still within the storm-belt; the forces that produced the conflict of the elements are still in operation; we may expect another, longer, and fiercer tempest,—a cyclone, it may be,—how are we prepared to meet it?

"O navis referunt in mare te novi
Fluctus."

Let it not be said of us, as of the Assyrians by the prophet, "Thy tacklings are loosed; they could not well strengthen their mast; they could not spread the sail; then is the prey of a great spoil divided; the lame take the prey." The commission given to the Roman Dictator, "See to it that the commonwealth receives no injury," is now the order of the day to every American citizen, in his own place and sphere of action. To us as educators, comes with especial force the order, "See to it, that so far as *your* office is concerned, the republic receives no injury." But is our office at all concerned with such things? These rioters, were they not foreigners, for whom our schools are in no way responsible? Fellow-teachers,

"For love of grace
Lay not this flattering unction to your souls.
It will but skin and film the ulcerous place
While rank corruption, mining all within,
Infects unseen."

Foreigners there were in plenty, no doubt, among those misguided people; but many, nay most of them, were sons of the soil, for whose habits and modes of thought, so far as those habits and modes can be effected by education, we are directly responsible.

The question before us, at this crisis, is, are our public schools doing all that we have a right to demand of them, to prepare the young people who have to live by the labor of their hands, to become intelligent, moral, and industrious citizens?

I have purposely narrowed the inquiry to those who labor with their hands, both because they form so large a majority of the number to be educated, and because those who are not destined to manual labor have always been able, when they desired it, to procure education outside of a public-school system. There is a latent fallacy, in the arguments of many, with regard to the connexion between education and labor, which it may be worth while to expose at the outset. It is popularly believed, though no one makes the assertion in so many words, that education and labor are, to a certain extent, incompatible, or rather that they bear to each other an inverse ratio. When one should be highest, the other should be lowest. For those who do the hardest kind of work, the lowest amount of learning suffices; indeed an eminent pulpit orator of a neighboring State holds that no education is the best for such laborers. On the other hand, persons whose intellect and taste have been cultivated to the highest possible point, are popularly supposed to be incapacitated for any useful employment. Accordingly, when primary schools were first established on a large scale, it was commonly believed that diligent and successful pupils would be able to live without working, and in the old spelling-book thumbed in my boyish days may be read an exhortation to diligent study, closing with the remarkable assertion which the boys regarded as a historical fact,

"For learning was the only thing
That made poor Pepin's son a king."

In opposition to this popular undercurrent of thought it becomes us to set forth the doctrine that public education is but the handmaid of labor, that education, so far from superseding labor, seeks only to render it more effective, that so far from there being any incompatibility between them, the best workman is the man who has had the best education. In answer then to the question propounded, I would say,

The school system, as it operates at present, does not go down low enough. It does not stoop to take in the very classes that need it most. In its aspirations after high respectability, it is apt to look coldly on the wounded Samaritan and pass him by on the other side. Well-clad boys and girls, who can give six hours a day to the public school, and an hour or two after school hours to the preparation of lessons, are welcomed with open arms, and furnished with such opportunities of improvement as money could not have purchased half a century ago. But what kind of reception is accorded to the fatherless urchin, whose mother keeps him at home two days out of the five and three hours out of the six, to assist in the necessary work of the family? What provision is made for those who must either attend irregularly or not at all? For those who have to work half the day, blacking boots or selling newspapers, but could be induced to go to school the other half? For those whose parents have no wish to send them to school, and for those who refuse to go when their parents send them? Finally, what do we do for those whose parents live by secret crime, and who are therefore growing up in outlawry—the Ishmaelites of our street deserts whose hand is against every man and every man's hand against them? There is growing up in all our cities, towns, villages, and even in some country districts, a class of young people who must live either by honest labor or by crime, and they are not taught to labor; what does the public school do for them?

It will be said, perhaps, we need a compulsory law to supplement the common-school system. Would that I could believe that a disease so wide-spread and deep-seated could be removed by the application of a patent porous plaster. When an act of Parliament can make a silver dollar equal in value to a gold one, irrespective of the laws of supply and demand, when the multiplication of legal-tenders makes genuine money plenty, when legislatures can compel railroads to run at a loss, or to run without loss, at whatever rates they may prescribe, when legislation can provide good work, at good wages, for every laborer, regardless of the laws of capital and production, when men can be made temperate by a prohibitory liquor law, or pious by a compulsory church law, when, in fine, water can be made to run up-hill by act of Congress, then, and not till, then, will I believe that the Arabs of the street and the neglected sons of poverty and crime can be reclaimed by a law requiring their attendance at school.

Not only does the public school not penetrate deep enough to reach the lowest strata of society, but its lessons are not sufficiently broad and practical to meet the wants of the majority of those whom it *does* reach. Could we only be certain that all who enter the primary school would

finish the course as graduates at the High School, there would be little if any reasonable ground of complaint with regard to the curriculum. But so far from this being the case, we know that not one in a hundred completes the course. A great school system is a gigantic staircase. Step A leads to B, and B to C, and so on to Z; and at Z there is a broad landing, and a magnificent prospect, but "few there be that find it." One hundred young climbers start at A; fifty have dropped out of line before they are half way up; and of the remainder, but one reaches the summit. What is to become of the stragglers? Why, we are told, it is not our business to look after stragglers. The column must advance, the line of march must be unbroken, the path has been marked out and the army must pursue it, whether the objective point is reached by one or many. True, if we have only the right goal in view. And if our grand objective be the safety of the entire army and not the pushing forward of the heads of columns. In this aspect, the care of the stragglers becomes an object of supreme concern.

It may be asked, and will doubtless be asked by those who shall follow me in the discussion of this question, "Is any serious modification of the ordinary common-school curriculum possible?" Within the brief limits of this paper it is of course impossible to discuss details; still it may reasonably be expected that I should indicate the direction in which, in my opinion, the change should proceed.

Taking the most favorable view of the average programme now in use, it may be conceded that each step forms the very best preparation for the next higher step; and that the course, as a whole, is well fitted to prepare the pupil who completes it for the ordinary duties of life. But the true theory of a common-school programme is that every step shall be the best possible preparation for stepping *out*, rather than for stepping *up*. It is conceivable that the two may coincide, and I have been told that in St Louis they are believed to coincide;—the fitness for promotion in class being conceived to be the best attainable preparation for the work of life at the given age. But looking at the ordinary and average common-school programme in the United States, it will be found that the interests of the few who complete it are studied more than the interests of the many who do not complete it. Such a change as I contemplate would involve a thorough re-arrangement of text-books, the postponement of many topics to a later period in the course, and the introduction at a comparatively early period of subjects either omitted, or taught in the later stages of the curriculum. It would bring in writing and drawing at the very beginning and continue them to the end, *pari-passu* with reading and spelling. It would give the simple practical, and useful parts of Arithmetic only in the early stages, and put off the theoretical and disciplinary chapters till much later. No general discussion of Fractions, for example, should be attempted before the sixth year of the course. All the science of Grammar should be postponed till the pupil was able to speak and write his native language with tolerable ease and correctness. And all through the course there should run alongside of the elementary lessons in the various departments of Natural History systematic instruction in morals and political economy. While the discipline and development of the mind should never be over-

looked, yet this discipline and development should be looked for as the proper outcome of a rational and practical course of study. It may be proper to regard mental development as a proper end *per se*, when we deal with those who are to have a liberal and complete education, but with the masses who are destined to have merely a fragment of the course, the best discipline will necessarily be found in connexion with the acquisition of the knowledges which shall be found most useful in their after school life.

I must anticipate one or two objections. "The present course is already too long. It is impossible to add anything to it without over-weighting both teachers and pupils." I reply that what we propose is not simply extension, but re-adjustment. If new studies are introduced it must be by curtailing the time devoted to the old. I have very little doubt that by judicious management one half of the time given to spelling, arithmetic, and geography, could be saved to the great advantage of the pupils. Pardon me if I illustrate what I mean by reference to spelling.

A very large part of a child's school-life is spent in learning to spell. It has been calculated that on an average an hour a day, for the ten years between six and sixteen, is spent upon this accomplishment. Now granting that good spelling is a necessary part of a finished education, does it follow that so much time should be given to it in the earlier part of the course. Are there not other things which the pupil is capable of learning and a knowledge of which would be of more service to him than the ability to spell all the test-words in the list? Of what use can spelling be to one who can not use the words which he has learned to spell? And if the vocabulary of a pupil who leaves school at fourteen is limited, as it is, to between five hundred and a thousand words of what use is it to him that he can spell five or ten thousand words. Indeed I might go further and say, of what use is it to any one to be able to spell correctly, except so far as the possession of one of the external signs of scholarship may be considered useful? What practical advantage has the orthography of Noah Webster over that of Josh Billings? Why must there be an absolute uniformity in spelling, which we do not acquire and cannot attain in pronunciation or in handwriting? Will a man be likely to build a house, or a carriage, or a ship, or steam-engine, any the worse, because he spells *precede*, and *proceed*, *relieve* and *receive*, *deleble* and *indelible* according to the same analogies? If the first elements of spelling have been properly taught, a student's spelling will keep pace with his reading; and why should it advance faster? If a person can spell correctly all the words that he has met with in his reading, he can probably spell all the words that he can use intelligently, and what need has he of more? Time, then, can be saved from spelling; and by rigidly excluding from the primary curriculum every part of Arithmetic, Grammar, and Geography, which is merely preparatory, or disciplinary, and not immediately useful, a large saving of time can be effected, which can be utilized in the revised programme.

How shall the time thus saved be employed? A part of it should be given to reading; not to the mere calling of words, nor to premature lessons in elocution; but to plain reading of good books for the sake of the

information they contain. It is not creditable to our efforts as educators that so large a proportion of pupils pass from us without having acquired a taste for good reading. I mean the reading of good books. Consult the statistics of any of our popular libraries, and observe how few books of real merit are called for and then say if the course of instruction of which this is the outcome does not need a re-adjustment. If our system confers an ability to read without creating not only a desire to read, but a desire for the right kind of reading, it surely stands in need of reformation. Especially for those who cannot have the benefit of a completed curriculum is it necessary that they be brought into sympathy, at an early age, with good literature, and saved from being shipwrecked on the rocks of dime novels, or the shoals of trashy Sunday-School novelettes.

I have great faith in good books. If the first aim of a public-school system is to make men better *workers*, the second is to make them better *thinkers*, and for this purpose the young mind must be brought into correspondence with the thoughts of the great men who have lived in former days, and of those who are still living. It is but little to teach children to read, if, when they have learned it, they have no desire to apply their power to a worthy object. Very little of the Arithmetic which children learn at school can be made available in after life:—the puzzles of the "Mental" which they solve with so much patience and execute with so much dexterity, are fortunately strangers even to the desk of the commercial clerk. Their feats of Analysis and Parsing are never to be repeated among the contests of actual life. Nine-tenths of what they have learned as Geography will pass away as the morning cloud and the early dew. But a taste for good reading once acquired will last for life; will be available every day and almost every hour, and will grow by what it feeds on; will so occupy the time of the young as to rob temptation of half its power by stealing more than half its opportunities, will give a keener zest to every pure enjoyment, will be a refuge and a solace in adversity, will spread from man to man and from family to family, and finally will not perish with the individual but descend from the fathers unto the children to the third and fourth generation. Oh! books, books, you are the only friends who are never weary of entertaining us, and yet look for no return; who are ever ready to turn night into day for our service; you are the teachers who instruct without punishing, advise without reproaching, and approve without flattering; you alone can remind us of our faults without wounding our pride, and signalize our virtues without inflaming our vanity.

Part of the time which we propose to gain by abridging, or omitting, the more technical and merely-preparatory part of the course, should be given to the two arts of expression, Drawing and Composition, of which I shall say nothing more here, as they will be fully discussed by other speakers.

Part of the time should also be given to positive and systematic instruction in morals. The possibility of teaching morality in a systematic way, and as part of the regular course, is denied by a majority of those who uphold as well as those who oppose a purely-secular system of education. Many deny even the need of it, holding that the family and the church

are competent to take charge of this department. But it must not be forgotten that the public school contains pupils who have no church connection and no family instruction. The safety of the State requires that *all* her citizens should know the difference between right and wrong. Surely it is of quite as much importance to *do* right as it is to spell right; yet how insignificant is the time given to the one in comparison with what we spend on the other. Besides, every school does in effect teach morality; and the only question is, shall it be taught indirectly, spasmodically, and according to the whim of the individual, or shall it be taught systematically, continuously, and with the weight of superior authority? Would not mental development be as effectually secured by the discussion of problems of right and wrong in conduct as by correcting bad English, [writing a synopsis of a verb in the passive voice,] making out lists of long rivers, or extracting square and cube roots?

Besides morals, the elements of political economy would claim a part of the time which we are attempting to re-distribute. The usefulness of this branch of knowledge no one questions, and in the curriculum of our best high schools, political economy is assigned a place alongside of moral philosophy. But this does not meet the case because millions of the pupils never reach the high school. My opinion is that the elements of personal and social morality, the principles of good behavior in the family, and in the world, the elements of political economy, the nature and the relations of money, capital, labor, and wages, can be made as accessible to the young as the elements of grammar and arithmetic and much more interesting. There are heights in all subjects (grammar as well as political economy) which the young cannot climb. There are depths which they cannot penetrate, but there are also wide plains where they can freely roam, and gather the flowers of useful knowledge. I would have these fields opened up to the younger as well as the older pupils: it is not necessary for them to attempt to scale the mountains till their limbs are stronger.

I am sure we make too much of the supposed difficulty of such subjects. Here is a part of the charge delivered by Judge Ewing, at Pittsburgh, at the late trial of the rioters. Let any unprejudiced person judge whether the substance of it could not have been taught to children of ten years of age, and whether if it had been taught systematically and positively it might not have been the means of saving many lives and millions of money.

"Men have a right to quit work with or without giving a reason for their quitting; but they have no right to go on the property after they have ceased to work either singly or in crowds. Going upon the Company's property in this case, whether they lifted a hand or not, made them trespassers. If three or more of them consulted together and agreed to interfere with the movement of trains, they were conspirators. If they committed any acts of violence, whereby they intimidated or prevented others from going to work, they were guilty of riot. And there can be only two sides to the riot—those engaged in it with their aiders and abettors, and those opposing it. There can be no innocent spectators to a riot."

You will remember that the question I had proposed to discuss was, "Are our public schools doing all that they ought to do, to prepare young people who have to live by labor to become intelligent, moral, and industrious citizens." In answering the question I have endeavored to show first that the school does not go down low enough into the strata of

humanity to affect the very classes that have most need of it; and secondly that school instruction deals too much with technical scholarship and too little with practical utilities;—too much in mere preparation for advancement in the hierarchy of studies, and too little in preparation for the verities of life. I remark now, in the third place, that a knowledge of some form of industrial labor is at least as necessary as a knowledge of books, and that the State which acknowledges its obligation to teach children to read cannot logically deny its obligation to teach them to work. I approach this part of my subject with great diffidence for it is beset with practical difficulties; but the times force it upon our notice, and a full and calm discussion may serve to prepare the public mind for changes which either with our aid or in spite of our opposition are sure to take place.

All public institutions which are destined to permanence, must be able to adapt themselves to the changes that are going on around them. They must be plastic enough to adjust themselves to their environment, else they will be crushed by the pressure.

Circumstances have greatly changed since the planting of the seed which has grown into the mighty tree known as the public-school system; I have time to specify two only of these changes—the abolition of apprenticeship, and the extensive introduction of machinery, accompanied by its necessary result, a minute sub-division of labor. Half a century ago, school learning was confined to the simplest rudiments; a boy quitted school at fourteen, and went on the farm, or was apprenticed to a trade. In the former case his education went on during the winter months, as a matter of course; in the other, his indentures obliged his master to give him a fair school education as well as to teach him a trade. Thus at twenty-one years of age, having learned pretty thoroughly the little that was then taught in the way of book-learning, and having learned, not merely how to support himself by honest labor, but also that the intelligent practice of any industrial pursuit is itself an education, he went out into the world to exercise his rights as an American citizen, not rich in scholarship, but rich in what is better far, good common sense, gathered by patient continuance in well doing. In those days men built houses that were meant to last, and not to be blown over by the first gale; chairs and tables made then will be as good as new at the close of the century; the very tailor made the sewing-on of a button a matter of conscience. I need not say that we have changed all that. The apprenticeship system, by which young men were kept under tutors and governors until they came of age, has been given up.

The trades-unions abolished it. Fathers banded themselves together to take the bread from their children's mouths. Like the Russian prince in the story, they tried to save their own lives by throwing their children to the wolves. Alongside of this change of which the result has been the loss of trained artisans, there has been going on another which only aggravates the evil, the cutting up of the departments of industry into minute subdivisions, which afford training for the hand only, and no development to the intellect. Fifty years ago, men laboring at their trades were still *men*; now they are *hands*, with only one head to a hundred of them. It is not Hercules now that accomplishes our labor, cleaning Augean stables and such like, but Briareus, with his hundred hands and but a single head.

Machinery does almost everything and man comes in only to supplement the steam-engine.

The public school has now to adjust itself to the feelings and wants of society. If in time past children were sent to school that they might become scholars and so escape the drudgery of manual labor, they should now be made to understand that they go to school to learn to be more efficient workmen. The public school is the school of the many, though its doors are hospitably open also to the few. The many must live by labor, and the school must help them so to live. No longer must the primary school be looked on merely as the vestibule to the high school, which in its turn is but the antechamber of the college; but the public school in all its departments must be regarded as the turnpike road from which the travellers step at once into the farm or the workshop. No doubt some will win their way to college, some will take high stools in the counting-house, and some, alas! will drop down in the nearest ditch as unskilled laborers. These are exceptions or accidents. "The greatest possible good to the greatest possible number" demands that all the sympathies of the school shall be on the side of intelligent and artistic manual labor.

Further, and finally, the public-school system cannot be regarded as complete, till to its departments of language, mathematics, science, &c., there is added another, to which these are but the stepping-stones,—a department of manual labor.

Few will deny this in theory; fewer still would be willing to carry it into practice. The State undertakes to educate the children of the people in order that they may become good citizens. But they cannot be *good* citizens unless they are useful citizens, and they cannot be useful citizens unless they have learned to work; therefore the State should teach them to *do* something as well as to know something. "Granted, but," we are told, "the thing is impracticable. The State cannot teach farming, and carpentering, and shoemaking." So ocean steamship navigation was pronounced impracticable forty years ago; so the sewing-machine was impracticable thirty odd years ago; so the Atlantic telegraph was impracticable twenty years ago; so ten years ago it was pronounced impracticable in England to give a primary education to all the children of the poor.

But all these things are now accomplished facts. The word "impracticable" is in the Dictionary still, but its definition has been changed. It now means difficult and costly. That is all.

But, says an objector, it is the business of the parent and not of the State to give a child a trade. Herbert Spencer goes farther and says it is the business of the parent to educate the child, and the State has rightly nothing to do with education. Where are you going to draw the line? The State may teach the art of writing, but not of printing; the art of drawing, but not of wood-cutting; the art of composition, but not of book-binding.

Put it into plain English and say the State must not venture to teach any thing by which a young man can make a living; yet, even here you would be inconsistent unless book-keeping (by which many graduates of our public schools do make a living) were stricken from the curriculum.

There is no escaping from the argument that if the State for her own protection is bound to interfere to prevent children from growing up in

ignorance, she is equally bound to prevent them from growing up in idleness. If parental duties and obligations are insufficient to meet the one case they are equally insufficient to meet the other.

Here is a lad just from the primary school; he can read and spell and write his name, and make some simple calculations; his parents are poor, he must leave school and go to work; he can't find a place as an apprentice, the unions have prevented that; he looks for odd jobs; he finds one now and then; he must be constantly on the lookout, constantly on the street; he becomes a loafer; he falls into crime; he is arrested, tried, convicted, once, twice, three times; finally he is sent to the penitentiary. And then when he has cost the State more than would have kept him at school four years longer, when his conscience is seared, his bad habits confirmed into a second nature, his self-respect gone, his character ruined, what do we propose to do for him? Why just what we should have done at first, we teach him a trade so that when he leaves the prison he may have the means of making an honest living.

Do I think it possible to *attach* workshops to our public schools? Certainly not. But I do think it possible to have public workshops where boys can learn trades as well as public schools where they can learn letters. And just as we transfer the few from the State school to the State college where they learn to be thinkers, I would transfer the many from the city school to the city workshop where they would learn to be workers.

If this were thought to be too much for a first step, it would certainly be possible to arrange under the sanction of the State and the general direction of the public-school authorities a system of apprenticeships by which the privilege of learning some form of industrial occupation should be secured to all who need it, while at the same time the incomplete literary education of the learner should be carried on as far as might be necessary and proper.

It was not my intention to enter into any greater detail than would suffice to make my meaning clear. It is evident to all that the whole question of industrial education, the establishment of technical schools and schools of art, is involved in the principles laid down. I leave the whole subject to the Association for discussion.

On motion of E. S. JOYNES, of Vanderbilt University, the question of arranging a special hour for the discussion of the Relation of Education and Labor was referred to a Programme Committee to report at 8 p. m.

Mr. JOYNES was appointed chairman of the committee.

Hon. H. A. M. HENDERSON, in the name of the Louisville Teachers' Association, invited the National Association to an Excursion on the Ohio River, Thursday night.

The Secretary, W. D. HENKLE, read the following invitations:

LOUISVILLE, KY., August 13, 1877.

To the Secretary of the National Educational Association:

In behalf of the Trustees of the Kentucky Institution for Educating the

Blind, I tender to the members of the National Educational Association a cordial invitation to visit the Institution in this city. I feel very confident that the members will survey with much interest the excellent appliances in the School for teaching the Blind. In this respect the Kentucky Institution is unsurpassed anywhere.

In addition to these Educational appliances they will have an opportunity of examining the various operations for printing for the blind, and among these will be found some of the most ingenious devices that have ever been invented for the purpose. I trust that some of the members may drop us hints by which we may increase our means of instruction.

I am very respectfully,

THEODORE S. BELL,

President of the Board of Trustees of the Kentucky School for the Blind.

On motion of JOHN HANCOCK, of Ohio, the thanks of the Association were tendered to the authorities of the Kentucky Blind Asylum for this courteous invitation to visit that Institution.

LOUISVILLE, KY., August 14, 1877.

To the Members of the National Education Association:

You are cordially invited to visit Cave-Hill Cemetery, and those desiring to do so can obtain complimentary tickets of admission of Dr. H. A. M. HENDERSON, Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Respectfully,

J. H. M. MORRIS, Secretary.

M. A. NEWELL, President, &c.

The Secretary, after reading this invitation, said the Cemetery was one of the finest in the whole country.

On motion of W. F. PHELPS, of Wisconsin, the thanks of the Association were tendered for this invitation.

LOUISVILLE, KY., August 14, 1877.

M. A. Newell, Esq., President National Education Association.—DEAR SIR:

Permit me to extend to the officers and members of the Association an invitation to visit, at their convenience, the Masonic Widows and Orphans' Home of Kentucky. Its doors will be open to you at any time during your stay in the city.

Very respectfully,

CHARLES TILDEN, Vice-President.

The Secretary then read the following letter to Major WM. J. DAVIS and enclosed circular relating to expenses of an excursion to Mammoth Cave:

MAMMOTH CAVE HOTEL, WM. S. MILLER, Proprietor, Aug. 11, 1877.

William J. Davis.—DEAR SIR:

Yours of the 9th received. I reply that our terms for your party will be \$3.00 per day board, and \$2.00 per short route, and \$3.00 per long route, with 33 per cent reduction on the above. Enclosed I send you our circular which will show you our excursion rates, and will give railroad and stage fare. I would like to know before your arrival how many and when they will come. The owners have stopped me from giving half-fare to any but ministers of the Gospel.

Yours, &c.,

WM. S. MILLER.

Louisville & Nashville

—A N D—

South & North Alabama Railroads.

Office General Passenger and Ticket Agent.

Louisville, Ky., May 25, 1877.

CIRCULAR.

That all our Connecting Lines may be fully informed as to Rates and Time to Mammoth Cave, we rise to explain.

Rates from Louisville, for round-trip tickets:

Single Ticket, - - - - -	\$8 50
Party of Five, going together, - - -	7 50
Party of Ten, going together, - - -	6 50
Party of Fifteen, going together, - -	6 00
Party of Twenty, going together, - -	5 75
Party of Twenty-five or over, - - -	5 50

Time from Louisville to Cave City three and one-half hours, and from Cave City to the Cave, distance eight and a half miles, good Concord coaches, about two hours. Board at Cave Hotel \$3,00 per day. Cave fees, short route \$2,00, longe route \$3,00. A reduction from hotel bills and cave fees, of 25 per cent is made on parties of ten or more. No reduction for a less number than ten.

Tickets sold at Louisville are arranged to allow members of a party to return separately.

C. P. ATMORE,
Gen'l Pass. and Ticket Agent.
WM. S. MILLER,
For Mammoth Cave Co.

LOUISVILLE, KY., August 14, 1877.

To the Members of the National Educational Association.—GENTLEMEN:

You are cordially invited to visit the rooms of The Health Lift, at Library Building, Fourth Avenue.

Very respectfully,

E. C. MILES, Manager.

The thanks of the Association were in each case returned.

DR. GEORGE A. CHASE announced that the rooms of the Female High School will be open to members during their stay in the city.

A motion by the Hon. J. P. WICKERSHAM, of Pennsylvania, was carried, that a committee of one from each State and Territory represented, be appointed to nominate officers to serve the Association during the ensuing year.

It was moved by Prof. WM. F. PHELPS, that a committee of five on the National Bureau of Education be appointed by the chair with instructions to report what measures, if any, are necessary for the extension of the powers and the more efficient discharge of the duties of that important agency; such committee to report before the final adjournment of the Association. Adopted.

J. ORMOND WILSON, of Washington, D. C., offered the following resolution which was referred to the committee on National Bureau of Education.

WHEREAS, Museums for illustrating the condition of education and the most useful and approved appliances for its promotion have been established in other countries, and experience has shown them to be of great utility, and

WHEREAS, The United States Bureau of Education has secured from the Centennial Exhibition, and now has in its possession, a large collection of valuable material gathered from our own and foreign countries, but is provided with neither a place in which the articles can be properly arranged and exhibited, nor funds to pay for the services required for this purpose, therefore be it

Resolved, That a Select Committee, to consist of five members of this Association, be appointed by the President to consider the expediency of establishing at Washington, and in connection with, and in charge of the Bureau of Education, a National Educational Museum, and that said committee be instructed to report to the present meeting.

The President appointed the following Committee on National Bureau of Education and Museum:—WM. F. PHELPS, of Wis.; J. P. WICKERSHAM, of Pa.; JOHN HANCOCK, of Ohio; J. ORMOND WILSON, of D. C.; and S. H. WHITE, of Ill.

A. S. LOVENTHAL offered the following, which was adopted:

Resolved, That a committee of three be appointed to organize the excursion to Mammoth Cave.

The Secretary then read the Treasurer's Report, which will be found near the close of this volume.

The Association adjourned until 8 o'clock, P. M.

EVENING SESSION.

The Association was called to order at 8 o'clock, and was entertained with a violin solo, Meditation, by Prof. GREEN ANDERSON.

Committees were announced as follows:

Committee of Arrangement for Excursion to Mammoth Cave:—A. S. LOVENTHAL, Washington Co., Ky.; W. H. BARTHOLOMEW, Louisville, Ky.; Miss SUMMERS, Louisville, Ky.

Committee on Nomination of Officers:—J. P. WICKERSHAM, Pa.; C. C. ROUNDS, Maine; J. D. RUNKLE, Mass.; Mrs. M. A. STONE, Conn.; GEO. G. MCKAY, Md.; THOS. R. PRICE, Va.; T. M. MARSHALL, W. Va.; M. B. FRANKLIN, Texas; E. S. JOYNES, Tenn.; W. H. BARTHOLOMEW, Ky.; E. T. TAPPAN, O.; W. A. BELL, Ind.; J. L. PICKARD, Ill.; A. ARMSTRONG, Iowa; WM. F. PHELPS, Wis.; R. D. SHANNON, Mo.; S. R. THOMPSON, Neb.; J. O. WILSON, D. C.; P. FISH, Ark.

Mr. J. F. BLACKINTON, of Boston, Mass., was then introduced and read an address entitled

SILENT FORCES IN EDUCATION.

[Mr. BLACKINTON declined to furnish his Address for publication. The following report of it is from the *Louisville Courier-Journal*.]

Among the silent forces helping or hindering the teacher, the lecturer spoke of the disposition which nature has implanted in the heart of the pupil, the pupil's health, home influence, the social atmosphere in which the pupil lives, the character of the books which the pupil reads, the character of the teacher. Mr. BLACKINTON began as follows:

The great and good events of this world come not with observation. They are the effects rather of unseen forces acting through the lapse of ages, slowly, silently, surely, working out their great results.

In the material world the devastation of the tornado, the sudden upheaval of a mountain, or the bursting of a planet, are local, exceptional, destructive. Such are not the processes by which a universe of star-dust has been converted into a perfected cosmos. For unnumbered ages the silent work has been going on, while the imponderable forces of nature have been marshaling their effective hosts; while atom and molecule have been playing their part; while sun, and planet, and satellite, and system have been evolved; while dew and rain, frost and snow, ocean and glacier, have silently worn, and crumbled, and dissolved, and crushed, and polished, bringing order, harmony, and beauty out of disorder, chaos, and confusion.

In the realm of mind we trace *like* causes and results. The forces that have shaped the destinies of mankind, that have moulded the thought and determined the civilization of the race, have not wrought by the violent upheaval of philosophical systems, the sudden revolution of religious faiths, or the noisy demonstrations of reforming crusaders; but rather by the slow germination and silent maturing of seed which had lain dormant for centuries. The world's greatest reformers and benefactors have not moved in the storm and the tempest, but rather in the gentle breeze and the silent dew; they have not spoken in the thunder and the earthquake, but in the still small voice that penetrates the soul and moves the heart.

In no department of intellectual life are these truths more apparent than in the work of education. And here let us not lose sight of the truth so often enunciated and enforced, but, alas, so often forgotten, that education is not attainment, not the storing up of facts, not the acquisition of knowledge, but the power to use all the faculties of mind and heart to the best advantage. It affects not the intellect alone, but the heart,

the life, the character, and the teacher has done most to accomplish this work, not by *direct* attempts to mould the character and influence the life of his pupil, but by touching some hidden spring, waking some latent power, setting in motion some self-acting force, which discloses to the possessor new powers, new fields of beauty and sublimity, and carries him upward into higher spheres of knowledge and culture.

Now, every teacher must, more or less often in his experience, have met this fact that, while he is using all the outward appliances which the schools have placed within his reach, while he is bringing to bear all the external resources of his art to lead his pupil to the desired goal, some unseen force is silently leading the pupil in the opposite direction, nullifying all his efforts and destroying every vestige of his own beneficent work. Again, this secret force will prove an unexpected auxiliary, seconding the teacher's efforts, stimulating the pupil to surprising exertions, and enabling him to accomplish unlooked-for results. It is therefore of the highest importance that the teacher learn to recognize these silent forces, to determine how far he himself is responsible for their working, and as far as possible, to control and guide them.

The lecturer then spoke of the teacher's temper, his manners, and the expression of his face, and continued as follows:

Finally, I come to speak of the most powerful of these silent forces, the character of the teacher himself. By character, of course, I mean the sum of all the qualities, intellectual and moral, that distinguish the man. That also by which; *objectively*, he *characterizes*, or, according to the etymology of the word, *marks* and *furrows* with ineffaceable signs the minds over which he has an influence.

Have you walked on the moraine of an Alpine glacier and seen the huge, misshapen masses which the icy current, in its onward flow, has thrown aside and left behind? Have you witnessed, deep furrowed in the solid rock, the everlasting record of its Titanic power? Or have you marked the graceful column standing erect on the frozen stream, beautifully grooved and polished as by the hand of an artist? So have you seen, on life's broad current, the marred and broken wrecks which have been thrown aside and left behind, bearing the deep, unsightly scars made by some rash, unskilful hand. So have you marked the stately character, erect and *manly*, bearing the marks of the skilful master, rounded and polished by the hand of the faithful instructor.

In concluding his elaborate address Mr. BLACKINTON said:

But this enumeration of the silent manifestation of character would be incomplete if I neglected to allude to that nameless, indefinable quality, that unconscious outflow of the innermost life, that moral magnetism, that something that no modesty can put aside, no hypocrisy conceal, which, without recommendation of clique or church, without a formulated creed or confession of faith, faithfully mirrors the inward life and attracts or repels all within the sphere of its influence. Who of us can not recall some teacher of our youth, charged with all the learning of the schools, whose knowledge of the subjects taught was profound, whose analysis *was clear*, whose power of imparting truth was unrivaled, whose voice, *measured by the standard* of the elocutionist, was perfect, but who never

waked one thrill of emotion in our hearts, never roused one aspiration for true greatness in our souls. Again we recall another, with a less brilliant intellect, perhaps, but whose very atmosphere, we knew not why, waked a new life within us, whose very presence, we knew not how, was an inspiration to goodness. Nor is this force any less real, because it can not be expressed in words. The greatest effects in nature and in art can not be bound up in definitions. Nature in her loftiest moods lays her finger on our lips and bids us be silent. Behind the work of every great orator, artist, or poet, there hangs the shadowy prophecy of something more eloquent unspoken, something nobler unaccomplished, something sublimer unwritten. So in the life of every good teacher there is something better than the lesson he has taught, something nobler than words of instruction he has spoken. Who has ever walked through the close at Rugby, or seen the oak pulpit rising above the seats in the little chapel, that has not felt the silent presence of one whose life was better than any lesson in classic lore he ever gave, grander than any sermon he ever preached. Ah! my friends, this magnetic sympathy is more than intellectual attainment, better than culture, higher than genius. It allies with the divine and the eternal. Would we know its power we must become humble students of the Divine Master. I once stood, at the close of an autumn day, on the top of a lofty éminence, just as the shades of evening were beginning to gather over the landscape. Before me was spread out that great plain, which for thirty-five centuries, has been the battle-field of the world; on which Saul and Gideon, the Crusaders and Napoleon fought for supremacy. Just before me rose the beautiful Mount of Transfiguration; on the left, embosomed in the surrounding hills, lay the quiet sea, on and around which were performed most of the mighty works of Him who spake as never man spake. At my right stretched the mountain range on which the prophet of Jehovah confounded the priests of Baal, while directly at my feet lay the little village where were spent the boyhood and youth of the great teacher. Soon the darkness of night gathered over all around me—Esdraelon, Tabor, Genessareth, Carmel, Nazareth, faded from my sight. But the presence of Him whose feet had trodden that plain, whose life is an ever-abiding inspiration; whose star for eighteen centuries has been the light of the world, seemed to overshadow me, while from out the darkness seemed to come the sublime words: "I am the way, the truth, and the life." Teachers, when at last the shades of night have gathered around us, when the tasks we have given, the lessons we have taught, the words we have spoken, shall have been forgotten, may the silent influence of our lives remain the bulwark of truth, the evangel of purity, the inspiration of goodness.

At the close of the address, a duet, by Misses Beringan and Board, was given as an interlude.

The following was then read by the Secretary :

This certifies that on the 13th of July, 1877, Dr. M. B. FRANKLIN was elected, by the Texas Educational Association, delegate to the National Educational Association which meets in Louisville, Ky., Aug. 14th, 1877.

WM. H. ALLEN, Secretary T. E. A.

the life, the character, and the teacher has done most to accomplish this work, not by *direct* attempts to mould the character and influence the life of his pupil, but by touching some hidden spring, waking some latent power, setting in motion some self-acting force, which discloses to the possessor new powers, new fields of beauty and sublimity, and carries him upward into higher spheres of knowledge and culture.

Now, every teacher must, more or less often in his experience, have met this fact that, while he is using all the outward appliances which the schools have placed within his reach, while he is bringing to bear all the external resources of his art to lead his pupil to the desired goal, some unseen force is silently leading the pupil in the opposite direction, nullifying all his efforts and destroying every vestige of his own beneficent work. Again, this secret force will prove an unexpected auxiliary, seconding the teacher's efforts, stimulating the pupil to surprising exertions, and enabling him to accomplish unlooked-for results. It is therefore of the highest importance that the teacher learn to recognize these silent forces, to determine how far he himself is responsible for their working, and as far as possible, to control and guide them.

The lecturer then spoke of the teacher's temper, his manners, and the expression of his face, and continued as follows :

Finally, I come to speak of the most powerful of these silent forces, the character of the teacher himself. By character, of course, I mean the sum of all the qualities, intellectual and moral, that distinguish the man. That also by which; *objectively*, he *characterizes*, or, according to the etymology of the word, *marks* and *furrows* with inefaceable signs the minds over which he has an influence.

Have you walked on the moraine of an Alpine glacier and seen the huge, misshapen masses which the icy current, in its onward flow, has thrown aside and left behind? Have you witnessed, deep furrowed in the solid rock, the everlasting record of its Titanic power? Or have you marked the graceful column standing erect on the frozen stream, beautifully grooved and polished as by the hand of an artist? So have you seen, on life's broad current, the marred and broken wrecks which have been thrown aside and left behind, bearing the deep, unsightly scars made by some rash, unskilful hand. So have you marked the stately character, erect and *manly*, bearing the marks of the skilful master, rounded and polished by the hand of the faithful instructor.

In concluding his elaborate address Mr. BLACKINTON said :

But this enumeration of the silent manifestation of character would be incomplete if I neglected to allude to that nameless, indefinable quality, that unconscious outflow of the innermost life, that moral magnetism, that something that no modesty can put aside, no hypocrisy conceal, which, without recommendation of clique or church, without a formulated creed or confession of faith, faithfully mirrors the inward life and attracts or repels all within the sphere of its influence. Who of us can not recall some teacher of our youth, charged with all the learning of the schools, whose knowledge of the subjects taught was profound, whose analysis was clear, whose power of imparting truth was unrivaled, whose voice, measured by the standard of the elocutionist, was perfect, but who never

waked one thrill of emotion in our hearts, never roused one aspiration for true greatness in our souls. Again we recall another, with a less brilliant intellect, perhaps, but whose very atmosphere, we knew not why, waked a new life within us, whose very presence, we knew not how, was an inspiration to goodness. Nor is this force any less real, because it can not be expressed in words. The greatest effects in nature and in art can not be bound up in definitions. Nature in her loftiest moods lays her finger on our lips and bids us be silent. Behind the work of every great orator, artist, or poet, there hangs the shadowy prophecy of something more eloquent unspoken, something nobler unaccomplished, something sublimer unwritten. So in the life of every good teacher there is something better than the lesson he has taught, something nobler than words of instruction he has spoken. Who has ever walked through the close at Rugby, or seen the oak pulpit rising above the seats in the little chapel, that has not felt the silent presence of one whose life was better than any lesson in classic lore he ever gave, grander than any sermon he ever preached. Ah! my friends, this magnetic sympathy is more than intellectual attainment, better than culture, higher than genius. It allies with the divine and the eternal. Would we know its power we must become humble students of the Divine Master. I once stood, at the close of an autumn day, on the top of a lofty eminence, just as the shades of evening were beginning to gather over the landscape. Before me was spread out that great plain, which for thirty-five centuries, has been the battle-field of the world; on which Saul and Gideon, the Crusaders and Napoleon fought for supremacy. Just before me rose the beautiful Mount of Transfiguration; on the left, embosomed in the surrounding hills, lay the quiet sea, on and around which were performed most of the mighty works of Him who spake as never man spake. At my right stretched the mountain range on which the prophet of Jehovah confounded the priests of Baal, while directly at my feet lay the little village where were spent the boyhood and youth of the great teacher. Soon the darkness of night gathered over all around me—Esdraelon, Tabor, Genessareth, Carmel, Nazareth, faded from my sight. But the presence of Him whose feet had trodden that plain, whose life is an ever-abiding inspiration; whose star for eighteen centuries has been the light of the world, seemed to overshadow me, while from out the darkness seemed to come the sublime words: "I am the way, the truth, and the life." Teachers, when at last the shades of night have gathered around us, when the tasks we have given, the lessons we have taught, the words we have spoken, shall have been forgotten, may the silent influence of our lives remain the bulwark of truth, the evangel of purity, the inspiration of goodness.

At the close of the address, a duet, by Misses Beringan and Board, was given as an interlude.

The following was then read by the Secretary :

This certifies that on the 13th of July, 1877, Dr. M. B. FRANKLIN was elected, by the Texas Educational Association, delegate to the National Educational Association which meets in Louisville, Ky., Aug. 14th, 1877.

WM. H. ALLEN, Secretary T. E. A.

Prof. THOMAS R. PRICE, M. A., University of Va., read a paper on the following subject :

THE STUDY OF ENGLISH AS INTRODUCTORY TO THE STUDY
OF LATIN AND GREEK.

[This paper has not been received. If it should come to hand it will be published in another place. For page see Table of Contents.]

The Association then listened to a song by a chorus of ladies and gentlemen.

H. B. PARSONS, of Louisville, read Father Blake's Church Collection.

Adjourned to 9 A. M., Wednesday, Aug. 15.

WEDNESDAY MORNING, AUG. 15th, 1877.

The meeting was opened with prayer by Dr. H. A. M. HENDERSON, of Kentucky.

The Committee on Programme reported as follows, which was adopted :

1st. That for want of time no papers can be received in the General Association which are not included in the programme.

2nd. That the reception of such papers and other questions in the several departments be referred to the Executive Committee of the respective departments.

3rd. That in the absence of Mr. DICKINSON, of Mass., Prof. STARK's paper on "The Place of English," be read in the General Association Wednesday morning.

The committee to which was referred the address of the President recommend :

1. That the discussion thereof, and of the general question of "The Relations of Education and Labor," be made the special order for the final meeting of the General Association at 8 P. M., on Thursday evening, after the transaction of necessary business.

2. That in view of the importance of this discussion the Association decline, with thanks, the tender of an excursion on the Ohio River, on Thursday afternoon; and further, that we specially invite the citizens of Louisville and all persons interested in this important subject, to attend and take part in the discussion thereof, at the final meeting on Thursday evening.

The report was adopted.

On motion of Prof. ALEX. HOGG, of Texas, the following department was organized :

DEPARTMENT OF TRANSPORTATION.

In order to effect a better and more uniform system of *Special Rates* upon the various Railroads and other methods of conveyance to secure, so far as possible, some definite concert of action upon the part of the authorities of the various lines of transportation for the next annual meeting of the Association :

Therefore,

1st. *Be it resolved*, by this Association, that a committee of seven be appointed by the President to be known and styled as "The Department of Transportation."

2nd. That one of them, by appointment, shall be the President of the department, and that the remaining six shall act as chairmen of the six districts to be hereafter determined, and they shall have power to appoint an assistant or assistants to aid them in properly arranging and perfecting this department.

W. M. MARRINER, of Louisville, Ky., was appointed Assistant Treasurer.

The Secretary read the following:

To the President of National Educational Association :

This will inform you that at the late session of the State Teachers' Association of Missouri, Dr. R. D. SHANNON, Superintendent of Schools for this State, was duly elected delegate to represent Missouri at the next annual session of the National Teachers' Association, to be held in Louisville, Ky.; and A. W. TERRILL, President of Hardin College, was elected Alternate to the same.

Respectfully,

Mrs. J. M. GREENWOOD,
Cor. Secretary of S. T. A. of Missouri.

Prof Wm. F. PHELPS moved to adopt the following resolution:

Resolved, That no Paper, Lecture, or Address, shall hereafter be read before this Association, or any of its departments, in the absence of its author, unless in the judgment of the presiding officer thereof such absence is the result of the most unavoidable and justifiable cause.

On motion the resolution was referred to the Board of Directors, with power to act.

Prof. W. R. WEBB, of Culleoka, Tenn., was then introduced and read the following paper:

THE RELATION OF THE PREPARATORY OR GRAMMAR SCHOOL TO COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY.

[This paper was returned at the request of the author, for revision, but the revised copy has not been received at this date, September 21. It will be published in another place, with Prof. Warder's discussion of it. See Table of Contents for page.]

The following resolution offered by Supt. J. L. PICKARD, of Chicago, was adopted:

Resolved, That the President announce a Committee on Resolutions to which shall be referred all Resolutions introduced by members of the Association.

Committee on Resolutions:—J. L. PICKARD, of Illinois, JOHN HANCOCK, of Ohio, J. D. RUNKLE, of Massachusetts.

The President announced the following Committees:

Committee on Teachers and Teachers' Places:—ALEX. HOGG, of Texas, W. A. BELL, of Indiana, Mrs. M. A. STONE, of Connecticut.

Committee on Deceased Members:—R. W. STEVENSON, of Ohio, D. B. HARGAR, of Massachusetts, R. D. SHANNON, of Missouri.

Committee on Department of Transportation:—ALEX. HOGG, of Texas, J. B. MERWIN, of Missouri, S. H. WHITE, of Illinois, W. A. BELL, of Indiana, E. H. COOK, of Ohio, Mrs. M. A. STONE, of Connecticut, and J. P. WICKERSHAM, of Pennsylvania.

Professor A. B. STARK, LL. D., President of Logan Female College, of Russellville, Ky., was introduced and read the following address:

THE PLACE OF ENGLISH IN THE HIGHER EDUCATION.

I shall begin with an unequivocal statement of my position: The study of the English language and literature should occupy the central place—the place of honor—in every scheme of higher education for English-speaking men and women. This primacy I claim for two principal reasons; first, the knowledge obtained from this study is of most worth in the practical affairs of real life; second, the right study of English may be made the instrument of the highest culture of the mind.

All educators, I believe, are agreed that a thorough knowledge of our mother-tongue is of supreme importance to every educated man or woman. The friends of classical studies urge among their strongest arguments in favor of studying Latin and Greek that through a careful study of these languages is the shortest and surest way to a thorough knowledge of English, while on the other hand, the advocates of the New Education magnify the importance of studying English. I think it unnecessary to dwell on this first proposition, and shall therefore, pass at once to a consideration of the *educational* value of the study of English.

In my first advocacy of the importance of studying English—in a Quarterly Review article printed seventeen years ago—I concede “that the study of the vernacular is almost valueless as a means of education, or as an instrument of intellectual culture and discipline.” I hope I am wiser to-day; I certainly hold a very different opinion. In that article I reviewed all the important books on the subject then published, and yet all those works, with the exception of Marsh’s Lectures and Latham’s Handbook, have been forgotten. A course of real study in English was then unknown. A young man, whose time had been mainly given to Latin and Greek, might be expected to err in estimating the value of an undeveloped study.

After many years of experience in teaching I have come to believe that one may be liberally educated without knowing even Shakespeare’s “little Latin and less Greek.” Let us see what is claimed for classical studies by their friends. Dr. Jacob, in a Lecture before the London College of Preceptors, after saying—what is most true—that it is “of the greatest importance to accustom young boys or girls to exercise such mental powers as *attention, observation, exactness or clearness of apprehension, the comparison of contrasts and similarities, generalization from a number of particular instances, the facility in tracing order in the midst of variety,*” tells us that Latin “affords peculiar opportunities for promoting the exercise of the very faculties which most need to be drawn out and trained in

boys, if they are to have an education which deserves the name." I think it will puzzle Dr. JACOB, or any one else, to show wherein Latin affords *peculiar* opportunities for promoting this training. Indeed an advocate of science-teaching may as well make a similar claim for the particular science which he recommends. Certainly the botanist may accept this language as a statement of his claim. These results can undoubtedly be deduced from the study of English, and, in fact, from almost any real study.

We must, therefore, seek a higher ground for justifying the giving of so much precious time to the study of Latin and Greek. Let us try the real object of learning a language, to use it as a tool for receiving and conveying thought. The utter uselessness of Latin and Greek for this practical purpose to almost every one who studies them, put them out of court at once. After all the years spent in the study of these languages, not one in a thousand of our college graduates ever learns to *read* them, and I doubt if there are ten teachers of them in America who can *read* them. There are many who can *translate* a Latin or a Greek book with the aid of a dictionary; there are others who can *translate* without the help of the dictionary; but *translating* is not *reading*. To *read* a book in a foreign language, you must *think* in its language—you must catch the thought at a glance without the intervention of English words at all. Now, who is there before me who can *thus read* an unfamiliar passage in Latin or Greek? Although I have spent many of the best years of my life in studying these languages, I am free to say I can not do it. I have never known a man who could do it. Hence we know no more about the thought, the life, the philosophy, the poetry of the Greeks and the Romans than we could have learned far more readily from good translations—using the correct translations of others in place of our own imperfect work.

All this, I know, is unpardonable heresy. My sin is made worse by the fact that I have fallen from grace. I was trained up in the good orthodox creed that the study of Latin and Greek is the chief factor of a *liberal* education—the central source of "sweetness and light." These gods of Greece and Rome having played their part, still "lag superfluous on the stage," and we must push them from their places to make room for something better, for modern languages and physical sciences. It may be said there is room for all, but I doubt it. Many eminent teachers in America and in England, writing to me in regard to a Prize Paper on Hamlet printed last year as a specimen of the work done by my pupils, use expressions of surprise and admiration that have astonished me, and confess that they are unable to do work so good on account of the overcrowded curriculums of their colleges and universities. From numerous statements of this kind, I infer that, although able and learned men are employed in the department of English in our leading institutions, the students do not have time for any real, earnest work at English. There is too much of something else. We must find this encumbering *something* and drive it out to make room for English. I think I see it in the form of Latin and Greek,—and abstract mathematics in some colleges.

Like the men of *Ephesus* who shouted "Great is Diana of the Ephe-

sians" all the louder because they no longer believed in her greatness, we sometimes cling the closer to our idols after we see their utter powerlessness. So I have done, and in the curriculum of Logan Female College I permitted Latin to hold the place of honor after I had lost faith in its right. Meanwhile I was giving the primacy to the study of English in the actual work of the college. A copy of the College Register having fallen into the hands of Mr. A. J. ELLIS, formerly President of the English Philological Association, and author of "Early English Pronunciation," he wrote me a long private letter in which he severely criticizes my inconsistency, and presses me to an open avowal of my real faith. I can best fortify the position I have taken by quoting his words:—

"It is perfectly absurd to speak of the humanizing effect of Latin and Greek; the grand literatures which they contain, their poetry, their philosophy, their history, the enormous influence which they have had upon the literature, poetry, philosophy, the whole tone of thought prevalent among civilized nations—I say that it is perfectly absurd to advance all these arguments, when the only condition which could make them valid is wanting. That condition is, that those who acquire them should be able to use them, that is, should be able to take up a Latin or Greek book, and read as most of those who have learned French and German would be ashamed not to do with French and German books; should be able rapidly by the eye to drink in the sense without the laborious consultation of dictionaries, without having to consider their own language at all; should be able to think in the languages so far as to speak and write in them with tolerable facility, making the words and phrases immediate representatives of thought. Without such power, we have no notion of the meaning or literature of a language. The words are tasks to get up, or symbols to decipher, not the utterances of genius. * * * * There are certainly not five in a hundred of those who learn Latin in our schools who can read with ease an unconned piece of Latin, or write off-hand a Latin letter on a familiar subject. I need not say a word about Greek. With all such people, learning Latin has been an arrant failure. They have done worse than waste their time. They have learned to make marks, to take places, to receive prizes, for mere botch-work."

These are the words of a man who devoted sixteen years of his early life to the dead languages, with a slight mixture of abstract mathematics. He tells us that, when he left Cambridge at the age of twenty-four, he was totally ignorant of the things he most needed to know, while his knowledge of Latin and Greek was "very small, poor, and inaccurate."

My classical friends must not attempt to refute me by the fallacy of an epithet, that is, by calling me *illiberal*, *narrow-minded*. It is just possible that there is some illiberality on the other side; it may be that if they knew more English they would think less of Latin and Greek. It is not enough for them to enlarge upon the *educating* power of classical studies. I am willing to admit what they usually claim for their favorite studies in that direction, but at the same time I hold that the highest and best discipline of mind is derived from a scientific study of English, German, and French, while the knowledge acquired in the process of learning these

modern languages is incalculably more valuable in the affairs of real life than the knowledge obtained by pursuing the fullest course in the classics. The friends of the Old Education must meet this position squarely. Fine phrases about liberal culture will no longer be accepted in place of facts. We too, believe in liberal culture. But if a knowledge of the highest thought of the ancient world as embodied in words by its foremost thinkers tends to liberalize and broaden the mind of a student, it must be trebly effective in its liberalizing influences to bring the student's mind up to the level of the highest thought of our own age. We are the ancients—"the heirs of all the ages." Our young men know vastly more than the wisest in the old time knew. They will, therefore, get most profit in knowledge, and equal profit in discipline, from the study of modern languages. After learning these, if they have leisure and inclination, they will *amuse* themselves by learning Greek and Latin.

Latin and Greek, being almost valueless in the work of fitting one for the duties of modern life, and by no means indispensable in the work of mental development, are, therefore, relegated to the position of pleasant accomplishments, or of professional helps for ministers, teachers, and specialists. The student who is rightly trained in the study of modern languages will in a very short time—one or two years—learn the grammatical forms and acquire facility in the translation of Greek and Latin. So far am I from accepting the once-popular notion—still heard of in out-of-the-way corners of the country—that English is best learned through the study of Latin that I maintain the opposite view; namely, the true, natural method is to pass from English, which is easy for us, to the study of Latin which is difficult—to pass in true logical order from the known to the unknown. I apply this great principle in my method of teaching English,—beginning with the simple modern forms that are known to the student and working back gradually to older and more complex forms which, if presented at once to the student, would seem as uncouth as Greek or Choctaw.

I must now say a few words about the methods of teaching English; for if the study of English is to occupy the foremost place in our institutions of higher instruction, the method of teaching it becomes exceedingly important. I am disposed to think that the unfruitfulness so often seen in English teaching is the result of wrong methods. Most destructive of all good results is the theory of the grammar-mongers, who, not recognizing the fact that the English language *is a language* with facts and idioms worthy of independent study, attempt to bring its facts into conformity with the rules of the Latin grammar. It would of course be just as wise to take English grammar as the basis of a Latin grammar. English is a Teutonic language with its own independent grammar, and must be studied *as English* and not as a corrupt form of Latin. It has borrowed words, but not grammatical principles, from the Latin. Whatever is common to the languages comes to each alike from their common mother, the *Aryan Ursprache*.

The two great instruments of study are history and comparison.

The historical method of study is the only road to a critical knowledge of our mother-tongue; but before we can employ this method intelligently,

we must get a clear conception of the *continuity* of English. We must recognize the fact that in English literature there has been an unbroken succession of authors from CÆDMON to TENNYSON, a period of twelve hundred years. The language of King ALFRED and the language of President HAYES are one and the same *English tongue*. "In fact," says Mr. SKEAT, "there is no difference between modern English and that Oldest form of it to which the name of Anglo-Saxon has been given, except such as has been naturally and gradually brought about by the mere lapse of time, (occasioning the loss of some words and some alteration in the form and meaning of others,) and by the enlargement of the vocabulary from foreign sources. In a word, Old English is the right key to the understanding of modern English, and those who will not use this key will never open the lock with all their fumbling,"—with all their attempts to use the counterfeit Latin-grammar key. No critical student, following the historical method, can stop in the 14th Century in his search for Old English. He can find no resting place—no distinct break in the continuity of the language. Between the writers of one period and those of the preceding generation the differences are always slight even in times of most rapid change—differences wholly insufficient to mark the death of one language and the birth of another.

Old English is synthetic, with an elaborate system of inflections; modern English is analytic; and almost inflectionless. We must not fall into the error of supposing that this change has been brought about by the Norman Conquest. Other kindred dialects, as Danish and Low Dutch, have undergone similar changes without the influences of external causes. So our mother-tongue has developed itself into its present forms, not by chance or by the will of Norman masters, but according to fixed laws. In its wonderful growth and all its seemingly-lawless transformations, it has followed necessary rules. In our teaching we must leave the unfruitful field of guess-work and investigate the manner in which the general laws of linguistic change and development are applicable to the growth of the English language. It is impossible to explain words and grammatical facts or idioms, except by their history. We must first know their affiliations and the facts that have preceded them; just as in the sciences of observation, such as chemistry or natural history, we can give an account of a fact only by knowing what has preceded it. For instance, in order to explain the manner in which a tree is formed, it is not enough to study the tree as it stands before us in its full-leaved glory; it is necessary to construct a *history* of the tree by the aid of accurate observations of the different states and forms through which it has successively passed. We are able to understand clearly what is only through a knowledge of what *has been*. We can discover the causes of a phenomenon only by taking a comprehensive view of antecedent phenomena. Grammar, in its true method, is the botany of language.

Modern English without Old English is a tree without roots—a lifeless trunk. The words that have been imported from Latin and other sources have been engrafted upon the English stock and draw their life-nourishment from roots that strike deep down into the death-kingsdoms of the oldest Teutonic speech.

Theoretically, we begin with what is oldest and farthest from us to explain all that follows in the course of time, but practically, in learning and in teaching, begin with what is nearest and best known and work back to what is less and less familiar.

As an illustration of what I mean by studying a fact historically, take the plural of the word *foot*. The boy or the girl learns in the elementary school that the plural of *foot* is *feet* and accepts it as an ultimate, inexplicable fact. But the man or woman in the College or University may ask why the plural is *feet* and not *foots*. I am afraid there are some very learned teachers of Latin and Greek who could not answer, except with a growl about the lawlessness of the English language. However it is explicable. Going back twelve hundred years, we find our present form *fōt*, *fēt*. Here seems to be an end of our search. But we can go further; for looking into the Old Saxon, the language as spoken by our forefathers in their old home on the Elbe before they settled in England, we find a plural in *i*, *fōti*. But it is a known law, holding good in all the Teutonic dialects, except the Gothic, that *a* or *o* is changed into *e* through the influence of *i* in the following syllable, hence *fōti* became *fēti*. After a time, this final *i*, the true sign of the plural, was dropped, and then the modified *e* was considered the sign of the plural. This Umlaut is itself an ultimate fact, like gravitation in Physics, inexplicable in the present state of our knowledge. Whatever help to a right understanding of the constructions and inflections of modern English may be obtained from comparing them with the forms and laws of the Latin language, it is clear that vastly greater help may be obtained from studying them in the light of their own history.

The second instrument of fruitful study is comparison. This opens a vast field for investigation; for we must compare our English tongue with all the cognate Aryan languages; but especially with German, Dutch, Danish, Icelandic, Gothic,—all the Teutonic tongues, old and new,—and with those languages with which it has come into contact during its long and wide-reaching history. English, the grandest language in the history of humanity, has the most extended affinities and historical connections.

As an example of an English form that can be explained only by comparison with a cognate dialect, take *ed* the sign of the past tense. No clue to the origin of this termination can be found in the English of any period. Our knowledge of Latin and Greek is again useless. In this case the Gothic will help us to the true explanation; for it is simply a reduplicated perfect of the verb *do*, *did*. Hence the Old English *lufode* is merely I love *did*, that is, I *did* love.

Thus studying English in its historical development and comparing it at every point with the languages with which it is connected by kinship or by contact, the student sees language in every form in which an Aryan tongue can appear, and may learn every important truth of linguistic science. Having learned English in this way and gotten a knowledge of French and German as collateral helps, the student will enjoy the best fruits of learning languages;—a liberal culture, a critical knowledge of his mother-tongue, an intelligent insight into the laws of language, and a key to what is best, usefulest, and most inspiring in literature.

But to learn the language in its living power, it is necessary to study it in its literature. The language is the body, the literature is its soul, they can be rightly understood only by studying them together. In a course of higher instruction in English, grammars, rhetorics, and histories of literature, are useful only for reference. It would be hard to invent a course of study more useless than that which fills the mind of the student with barren dates and facts in the lives of our great writers and with the opinions of other men about their works.

The student must go directly to the literature and *study* its master-pieces in their *original* forms—with the very spelling and punctuation of the authors. *Study* each work in the most thorough way; *study* every part, every sentence, every line, every word; *study* every allusion, every illustration, every figure; *study* every thought, every opinion, every argument; *study* every fact in the author's life, every fact in the history of his time, that will help in any way to an understanding and appreciation of the work. No book of extracts should be used. A work of genius must be studied as a whole. If you can give but a few days to a writer, study some *entire* short work in preference to using extracts from larger works. A student will get far more profit out of MILTON's *Lycidas* studied in this way, than from going through *Paradise Lost*, in the ordinary way.

Take a play of SHAKSPERE—what an instrument for the highest culture! How rich the rewards of diligent labor in this mine! What more inspiring thing is possible for a human mind than to be brought so near to the foremost mind of all this world's history? I am not disposed to undervalue the grand literatures of Greece and Rome; they mark the highest tide of human thought in the Old-World civilization; and yet, in their combined worth, they are out-valued by SHAKSPERE alone—without counting in the worth of CHAUCER, LANGLAND, SPENSER, BACON, HOOKER, MILTON, POPE, WORDSWORTH, TENNYSON—may the roll stretch out “to the crack of doom?” How unwise in us in our anxiety to teach our children the languages of PLATO and CICERO, to leave them in ignorance of the language of their own forefathers! I trust the time will speedily come when no man or woman who is unable to read at sight a page of English of any age from ALFRED to VICTORIA will be considered *liberally* educated, whatever else he or she may know.

Certainly much has been done in the last ten years to encourage us. In the time of RICHARD the Second, in 1385, English was admitted into English schools as a teaching medium; the close of our century will witness its full admission into English and American schools as a teaching subject. The future historian will record the significant fact that in our age the boys and girls of England and America were for the first time instructed carefully in the great classics of their mother-tongue—that they knew CHAUCER and SHAKSPERE and BACON as the boys and girls of Greece knew HOMER and SOPHOCLES and PLATO.

Greek itself was admitted, as a subject of study, into the English Universities in the sixteenth century, only after a long and fierce battle between the Greeks and the Trojans of that day. “There were many then who from various points of view echoed the sentiment expressed by the Duke of Norfolk in 1540: “*I never read the Scripture,*” said that adherent

of the departing age, "*nor never will read it. It was merry in England before the new learning came up; yea, I would all things were as hath been in times past.*" Who could laugh at these words of a strangely-troubled spirit? Rather one might weep over them; there is a certain pathos in the helpless embarrassment and despair they reflect; but one can see they were not wise, provident words; one can not regret that the "new learning came up." But not altogether unlike is the sentiment sometimes heard in these days of like unsettlement and transition."

The old Duke of Norfolk is the prototype of many living men; from an undefined dread of the New, they cling to the Old, in helpless, despairing bewilderment. As the world spins swiftly down the grooves of change, they become dizzy and sigh for rest. They smile at the narrow-mindedness of conservatives in other ages, but fail to see the same weakness in themselves.

"Surely the wise course now is," says Mr. HALES, "not to set our faces against the incoming studies, but to do our best to regulate and order their admission. Let us give these strangers a judicious welcome. Let us frankly and generously examine what recommendations they have to advance for themselves. Let us banish utterly and forever from our minds the notion of finality in education. Let us recognize that all our efforts are but tentative, and that we are yet an immeasurable distance, not only from absolute perfection, but from that degree of perfection which is attainable. May it not be indeed that we are at present in an extremely-rudimentary stage of advancement in this momentous respect?—that the question of education is yet in its veriest infancy? Perhaps we are yet at the very foot of the mountain, and have not really commenced the ascent. Not odder, it may be, in our eyes is the educational system of the Middle Ages than our present system will be according to the decisions of posterity. These possibilities should surely make us, not reckless revolutionists, but thoughtful, considerate reformers. The changes that are now making will in their turn perhaps be modified or superseded. There is no such thing as an educational canon which closes and is complete."

Our King Arthur, the Spirit of the Age, commands us "to fling far into the middle mere" the brand Excalibur, the marvellously-wrought Greek tongue. Let us not, like the bold SIR BEDIVERE, clouded with our own conceits, betray our king, but while remembering the wonders of the brand and admiring its haft twinkling

"with diamond sparks,
Myriads of topaz-lights, and jacinth-work
Of subtlest jewelry,"

let us "strongly wheel and throw it."

The old order changeth, yielding place to new,
And God fulfils himself in many ways,
Lest one good custom should corrupt the world."

The rising glories of the new era far outshine the splendors of the past.

"Then from the dawn it seem'd there came, but faint
As from beyond the limit of the world,
Like the last echo born of a great cry,
Sounds, as if some fair city were one voice
Around a king returning from his wars.

Thereat once more he moved about, and clomb
 E'en to the highest he could climb, and saw,
 Straining his eyes beneath an arch of hand,
 Or thought he saw, the speck that bare the king,
 Down that long water opening on the deep
 Somewhere far off, pass on and on, and go
 From less to less and vanish into light.
 And the new sun rose bringing the new year."

The Association adjourned until 8 o'clock P. M.

EVENING SESSION, WEDNESDAY, AUG. 15th, 1877.

The Association was called to order at 8 o'clock, and the exercises were opened with music by Eichorn's Orchestra.

The Committee on visiting Mammoth Cave announced that the party would start Thursday night at 12 o'clock.

The Committee on nomination of officers to serve during the ensuing year reported as follows:

For President:—JOHN HANCOCK, of Ohio.

For First Vice President:—H. A. M. HENDERSON, of Kentucky.

For Vice Presidents:—E. S. JOYNES, Tenn.; ALEX. HOGG, Texas; I. W. ANDREWS, O.; EDWARD BROOKS, Pa.; G. A. CHASE, Ky.; R. D. SHANNON, Mo.; J. W. HOYT, Wis.; S. S. GREENE, R. I.; J. H. SMART, Ind.; JAMES CRUIKSHANK, N. Y.; J. C. CORBIN, Ark.

For Secretary:—W. D. HENKLE, O.

For Treasurer:—J. ORMOND WILSON, Washington, D. C.

Counsellors at Large:—JOHN EATON, Washington, D. C.; M. A. NEWELL, Maryland.

Counsellors:—C. C. ROUNDS, Me.; D. B. HAGAR, Mass.; Mrs. M. A. STONE, Conn.; Mrs. EMMA W. CRAIN, N. Y.; Miss GEORGIANA VAN AKIN, N. J.; W. H. G. ADNEY, Pa.; THOS. R. PRICE, Va.; C. K. NELSON, Md.; W. K. PENDLETON, W. Va.; JOHN R. SAMPSON, N. C.; WM. R. GARRETT, Tenn.; LEMUEL MOSS, Ind.; J. L. PICKARD, Ill.; E. H. COOK, Ohio; C. Y. LACY, Minn.; A. ARMSTRONG, Iowa; G. W. HILL, Ark.; J. A. RAINWATER, Miss.; RUFUS C. BURLESON, Texas; S. R. THOMPSON, Neb.; J. M. HARLEY, Indian Territory; Z. RICHARDS, Washington, D. C.; S. S. LAWS, Mo.; W. H. BARTHOLOMEW, Kentucky.

The following dispatch was received and read by Hon. J. ORMOND WILSON:

WASHINGTON, D. C., Aug. 15, 1877.

HON. J. ORMOND WILSON,

Hall Educational Association, Louisville, Ky.

Impossible for me to leave. Please explain for me about International Congress.

JOHN EATON.

A song was sung by Miss FRIEDENHEIM, of Louisville.

Prof. MAURICE KIRBY, of Henderson, Ky., was introduced and read the following address:

THE STUDY OF SOCIAL ECONOMY IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

[This Address has not as yet been received. If received it will be published in another place. For page see Table of Contents.]

Music by Eichorn's Orchestra.

After some announcements by the President, Prof. W. R. GARRETT, of Nashville, Tenn., was introduced and read the following :

THE LIMITS OF EDUCATION.

MR. PRESIDENT :

I shall not attempt to define or enumerate the limits of Education ; certainly, not to present any detailed curriculum of study in either the higher or lower departments ; but, viewing the subject in a more general manner, I shall endeavor to point out the necessity of recognizing those limits which the character of our people and the nature of our institutions prescribe to Education in this country. Let us confine our attention chiefly to two of these limits. 1st, The limit of public sentiment may be considered as "the limit of demand," or "the subjective limit." 2nd, The limit of instruction may be called "the limit of supply," or "the objective limit."

Before entering on this discussion, two other limits demand brief notice—brief, not because they lack in importance, but because all that could be said would be readily anticipated. These are: 1st, The pecuniary limit, or the limit of expense, and 2nd, the limit of time.

It is no new complaint among educators that the means at their command are inadequate to the work to be accomplished. The stringency of the times has greatly increased this difficulty, reaching private institutions by a diminution of their patronage, and public institutions by a reduction of appropriations, and the application of the pruning knife. While much might be said to argue that this ought not to be the case, or to maintain that it will be temporary, it is none the less a present fact, a law to educators, and a limit to education. Not less imperative is the limit of time. Parents and pupils cannot be induced to allot to education, either in number of years, or in their consecutive order, the time which instructors claim to be essential to a complete system. How far to obey this law, how far to resist it, or how to overcome the difficulty by a judicious location of the essential branches in the course of study presents to the teacher one, among his many difficult practical problems. In a country so wide in extent as ours, and differing so widely in soil, climate, and occupation, this question becomes local, and cannot be treated as a whole. In higher and endowed institutions, these limits of time and expense are to some extent in the hands of educators ; yet even here learners begrudge the time consumed even more than the expense, and concessions must be made to their impatience and necessities. In common schools, these limits are entirely beyond the educator's control. In neither case, can they be ignored in devising an efficient, and useful system, and one within the reach of those who need it.

We come now to consider "the limit of public sentiment." This limit may be called subjective, because it looks to the character and wants of the pupil, and the effects produced on his mind. It is also the limit of

demand. This limit is sometimes forgotten by the educator as he looks objectively over the field of letters, and cannot withdraw his fascinated gaze to examine those who are to receive his instructions. Yet, when forced on his notice, he cannot deny the importance of considering carefully the popular demand. To estimate more justly this popular demand, let us glance at the spirit of the age in which we live. The most casual observer cannot fail to see that the character of our people is changing, and their tastes are changing also. This change, it is not our purpose to eulogize or deplore, but simply to note as a fact. Though we may sigh over the beautiful visions of the past, and vainly rail at the present, yet we find in the progress of the world the same law which governs our own lives. In its earlier periods, in its youth, it was amused and misled by all that was fanciful or bright. As it grows into manhood, its intellectual powers mature, its pursuits are higher and more useful, its judgment more correct. It throws aside its gauds and its toys, its poetry and its chivalry, and yet weeps over its youth as the happiest of its days, and laments its discarded toys as the sweetest of its pleasures. No longer does the tournament clothe the knight in steel, or splinter the lance or clash the glittering blade in honor of ladies' eyes, or "in mimicry of noble war." "The age of chivalry has past." Its romantic dreams, its fantastic spirit have long ago fled before Cervantes and Butler. Poetry too has declined. Does the genius of our age supply some Jupiter to aid with his thunderbolts the artillery of war, or some Minerva or Egeria to concert the skilful campaign, or some silver-footed Thetis to dip the hero in the river Styx? Our histories explain the marches and the counter-marches, surmise on the plans of the campaign, and borrow from fancy only a few tropes to express the terrors of the battle, or the gallantry of the troops. Is some new phenomenon of nature displayed; for instance, does some comet visit our earth, we do not look in the morning's paper for odes, hailing it as "the wandering child of space," or "the fiery messenger of Heaven," but rather for some article explaining its causes, and calculating its movements. Whatever phenomenon now appears, begets neither poetry nor superstition, but sets thousands of active minds to investigating. Speculation is heaped upon speculation, till at length some great truth is discovered, and a new and wiser era dawns upon the world. This then is the spirit of the age, this is the philosophic, the mechanic age, in which the mind of man, tired of ancient dreams and reveries, repulsed in its vain endeavor to fathom the metaphysical and the infinite is now rapidly asserting its control over the real and the finite. Now does matter become subject to mind; now does Science reap triumphs. Disdaining to flatter man's weakness, sometimes humiliating in her useful lesson, she is ever bestowing her kind instructions, and showering her abundant blessings. Thus she kindly takes from his grasp the kaleidoscope, through which capricious Fancy looked in childish glee, delighted to view Nature in sparkling combination, and changeful scene, yet in occasional glimpses, in fantastic and distorted hues. She places in his hand her truthful telescope, and bids the Heavens reveal their secrets to his gaze, and Nature to expand before his eye, uncolored in all her truth.

If this is the spirit of our age, is it wonderful that Education is required to conform to it? Education is now directed not alone to beautify and

adorn the mind, but adds another office, to fit for the scientific pursuits, the practical concerns of life, and adopts as one of its best maxims, "Teach your boys what they will practice when they become men."

I do not mean to argue that they must learn nothing but the practical, neither do I mean to assert that there is nothing in the world but science, and no popular demands on the educator except the scientific. I am well aware that every man is not a scientist, and all the world is not burning with the thirst for invention, and scientific research. This is called the scientific, the mechanic age, not because science is exclusive, not because the mechanical and material has absorbed and banished everything else, but because in this age Science has first reached a mature point in its development, and entered upon a useful career. Science, like all else has its limits, and scientific instruction is but one branch of education. I have emphasized its demands, because it is the youngest claimant, and because its claims on education, though generally conceded, are sometimes disputed, and by no means universally provided for. I think, however, it will be admitted that public sentiment demands for popular education, as a prominent feature, scientific training.

Another demand of public sentiment is æsthetic culture. When I said that Poetry and Chivalry had *declined*, I perhaps used a word which failed to convey my meaning. They have become shorn of their wild vagaries and purified. Enough of their noble spirit still remains, and may it ever remain, to ennoble the heart, to enrich the mind, to delight the fancy, but not as formerly to mislead the judgment and run riot with the imagination. And again, popular sentiment strongly demands moral training. Wherever this has been omitted its disastrous effects have been seen and acknowledged, and its reform imperatively demanded. There is also a strong demand for physical training. To assign, in the course of popular instruction, its proper place to the various subdivisions of intellectual instruction, and to combine these in due proportion with æsthetic, moral, and physical training, and bring them all within the limits of time, expense, and popular demand, presents to the teacher the most difficult of all his problems. I shall not attempt to solve it, and refer its consideration to our next branch of inquiry, the law of supply.

This we have denominated the limit of instruction, or the objective limit. In considering first the higher institutions, it is to be regretted, that the tendency seems to be, rather to increase their number, than to add to the efficiency and resources of those already established. While primary education must be made accessible, and from its very nature, demands diffusion over the country, and adaptability to the wants of each locality, the College, the University, or the professional school requires a large scope of country to support it, and the concentration at some convenient point, of influence, wealth and appliances. Since higher institutions cannot be brought to each man's door, and the learner is forced to incur the expense and inconvenience of leaving home, it matters but little that he should go a few miles further, while the too great multiplication of these institutions places them as rivals in each other's way, impairing each other's patronage, resources and efficiency, and in the struggle for existence unduly stimulating public demand, and diluting higher education. If, instead of straining their re-

sources, as many of them do, to cover the whole ground of education, those restricted in means would be content to fill efficiently some special department in a general system, it would perhaps be an advantage to their own reputations, and a benefit to the country. Owing their existence, in many cases, to private liberality, and restrained by the will of their founders, or by local considerations, it is, perhaps, impossible for them to co-operate in a general system, or conform to a general law. In the history of the country, as the benefits of a division of labor have become more clearly manifest, and the lines of division more accurately drawn, it has been accompanied by a corresponding division in the departments of education. Special schools have sprung up, professional, industrial, agricultural, mercantile. The demand for these institutions, though a strong one, does not seem to be mature, and has not developed and shaped its supply. Thus many of them assume special names without presenting distinctive features. In the higher institutions of general instruction, the line now plainly drawn between the literary and scientific courses, and the increasing tendency toward the elective system testify to the popular demand for a special education. A strong tendency is also noticeable to skip over the college or general course, and step from the common school to the professional school. How many, and what branches shall be included in a course of general instruction, how far they shall be elective, how far compulsory,—to what extent special or professional education requires a previous general course as its foundation,—are vexed questions, and perhaps will always lie between variable limits.

Viewing education objectively, and looking over the long list of branches and departments, the man of learning can hardly find it in his heart to mar the beauty of the catalogue by the sacrifice of one; but turning his eyes on those who are to receive them, we find few who are either desirous or capable of universal knowledge. Even the universalist in education is forced to admit that the effort to teach every thing to every body would far exceed the utmost limit of time, expense, and demand. In higher education, however, these questions, to some extent, regulate themselves, and are free from the necessities which embarrass the lower schools. In the elementary schools the numbers to be provided for are greater. The special department, and the elective system cannot be used, and a new question is presented. This is the training period. Its branches of study must be selected, not only with reference to their objective utilities, but also with reference to their subjective effects in developing the faculties. How far shall we train the faculties? How far impart knowledge? How far combine both methods? The conflict of opinion, and the clamor of the various branches for admission confuses even the experienced teacher.

As the elementary principles are few and simple, says the universalist, and as many will have no opportunities beyond the school-room, let us teach the elements of all. At least, says the linguist, do not sacrifice the ancient languages; for this is our eldest born, and claims the birthright. Jacob, our youngest, says the Scientist, is ready with the venison, and waiting to receive the blessing. Shall metaphysics be omitted? "Self knowledge is an end unto itself, while all the rest are but means." The demands of all are equally importunate. The practical educator is com-

pelled to apply his limits of time, expense, and demand. He is forced to say to the linguist;—"While we admit the indirect effect of the ancient languages in producing refinement of thought, and æsthetic culture, yet we think this can be better supplied by direct means, and by the study of our own language. We can give to their elements a limited space in the higher part of our course, and perhaps make them elective, so that those who wish to pursue them, may reach them in regular order, and the masses whose tastes and necessities alike rebel against them may avoid them. In any other form they exceed our limits, and cannot allow them to be placed as an embargo, a prohibition at the entrance-door of popular education. Those who desire to begin them earlier must seek special schools.

The scientist must be reminded, that his connexion is a very extensive one, and though some of his branches can be admitted, there is not room for the whole family. It is not my purpose, however, to prescribe a curriculum of study, but only to suggest its limits.

It may be asked:—"Shall educators yield to popular demands? Shall they not rather rise above the clamor of the hour and educate public sentiment to loftier standards?" It may be answered that education is already above temporary clamors, but a permanent, persistent popular demand must be respected, and is often, in the end, recognized to be right. The teacher dismisses his retiring pupil at the school-room door, there stops to receive the coming generation, and devotes his accumulating experience to devise improved methods for imparting again the same instruction. The parent looks to his son to note in his life the results of his training. The public looks at its citizen, and begins the observation where the teacher left it off. If it finds defects of judgment, false views of life, a mind misled or dazzled, a character warped, or deformed, and his career a failure, it accuses the teacher, and tries the system by its results.

By its results then, let us try some of those systems which have overstepped their proper and natural limits. We will select two examples, opposite extremes:—1st, The system in which the literary element has predominated to the exclusion of the practical and scientific, and 2nd, the system in which the practical, tending to the scientific, has excluded literary and æsthetic culture. The literary is found to predominate usually in those systems, where education was built from the top, where the college preceded the school, extending its influence downwards. The men who thus from the College-Hall regulated the light which should flow into the minds of future generations were usually men of the purest character, and most eminent attainments. The tone of education partook of their inspiration, and their system has produced a larger proportion of men eminent for integrity, eloquence, and patriotism than, perhaps, any other system. On the other hand, it has produced a larger proportion, perhaps, than any other system, of men whose lives have been failures. It has failed to comprehend the wants of popular education, and has exercised a depressing effect upon the material interests of the country. Ignoring all popular demands, it aimed to educate public sentiment to its own standards. Animated by an injudicious enthusiasm, it forgot that we need only a class of literary men, and directed all the talent of the country into

literary, political, or professional channels, while the producing interests were overlooked or degraded. What result must follow? Its young men look to the learned professions, to politics, and literature, as the old Roman looked to the army, as the only avenue to honor and distinction. They emigrate to find abroad a field for their talents, while the population of their community is depleted by the fatal drain, and all its material interests languish. This system has stimulated too greatly the imagination and ambition, and has invited all to be great men. Too often the teacher proud of the pupil, the parent proud of the child united their influence to influence those very passions which it should be their province to soothe. Thus, with intellect unmatured, with imagination and ambition on fire, he rushes into life, too often to find disappointment deep and withering. On his graduating day we hear his maiden speech. Shrinking from censure, yet longing for applause, he presents himself to the ordeal of criticism. His discourse is replete with images about "the light which shines on Fame's proud temple," and "the eagle soaring to the sun." We overlook its extravagance, and forgive its faults. His audience would be cold indeed, and unfeeling, if they refused their plaudits. Having once tasted the sweet savor of applause, we view him next, with kindling appetite, in popular assemblies seeking a conspicuous place. He devours the lighter literature, and his mind withdrawn from all useful, or practical pursuits, seeks only that which can yield excitement or applause. If honors fail to come as they cannot come to all, he begins to fancy himself an unappreciated genius or the sport of fortune, and we see with regret the bright boy of yesterday degenerate into the disappointed politician, the misanthropist, the blighted man.

Let us look at another product of this system. The large class, whose means were limited, and who could devote but a few years to their education, found, in many cases, no schools provided for them, and in general, schools totally unsuited to their wants. These schools, aiming only to prepare for a college course, were not a whole within themselves. The pupil found Latin and Greek laid as a prohibition on his efforts to acquire a knowledge of his own tongue, or any useful information. He left school with incomplete fragments of knowledge, and a mind dazzled and confused, and was told that it must be finished off at college. No wonder, that under such a system, many thoughtful men have doubted the benefits of education. I have dwelt on this system, because its faults are less easily detected, and less freely admitted, "and even its failings lean to virtue's side."

We may briefly examine the opposite system. Those systems may be said to be built from the bottom, where the primary school has followed close upon the heels of the pioneer, has grown with the development of the country, and expanded into higher education in direct response to popular demand. Education co-inciding with public sentiment has directed all the talent of the country into practical channels, has promoted practical science, and stimulated the producing industries. In such countries, for the most part a rapid material development is witnessed, accompanied by a lack of the refinements of intellectual, æsthetic, and moral sensibilities, which distinguish literary communities. Moral and æsthetic

culture seem to have been omitted by haste rather than by design, certainly there is nothing in practical and scientific training to degrade morals or taste; but moral and æsthetic refinement follow only on moral and æsthetic training. While the intellect is developing, the character is forming also. Though sometimes separated in the theory of the metaphysician, yet from the human breast, thought and impulse spring forth in one mingled ray as intimately interwoven as the light, and the heat of the sun. They must be educated together for they will grow together. The evils which follow on any system, which fails to provide moral and æsthetic training are too well recognized, and have been too often painted to need any picture from my pen.

While I have endeavored to point out some of the errors of education, I trust I shall not be understood to croak. I am well aware of the immense benefits, which our country has received from the education of the past. Yet it has not been free from defects, and has been attended with some positive evils. To cure these defects, to avoid these evils, is a subject not unworthy the consideration of educators.

The question "Shall we educate?" has long ago been answered. The practical questions now before us are questions of ways and means, of method and of limit. These questions are not to be answered by the theorist or the essayist. They demand for their solution the combined experience of all the educators of the land, and the answer must be given not in definitions or sentences, but in the practical working of educational systems.

I have not attempted therefore to define the limits of education, but have only asked attention to the problem. I shall draw but one conclusion. Public sentiment demands for popular education, that its limits be respected. It needs various classes of citizens and a corresponding division in education. It demands a class of literary men, a class of scientific men, a class of professional men, and it demands that the special wants of their education be provided for; but it demands a nation of educated men. In the language of a distinguished educator:—"To be a man is after all the best thing, and that which most becomes a man;—a man with all the attributes of man, developed and trained to the high purposes of life. Whatever be his special pursuit, he is, at least, called upon to be a man, to bear a man's part in life's great battle. This true manhood, this true citizenship comprehends everything; it is above every profession and every accomplishment." Public sentiment demands from popular education, as its product, such a man as this, a robust development of the boy into the man, strengthened in mind, trained in habit, fitted and inspired to enter with vigor upon the active pursuits by which the mass of our people sustain their lives, and develop their country; a man fitted to adorn and enjoy his lot in life, and to add to the happiness and virtue, as well the prosperity of his community. To effect this end, it demands in the school-room moral, intellectual, and æsthetic development, and an elimination from its course of all that retards this result, or exceeds its proper limits. Within its limits, may the education of the people be perfected, and beyond its limits may it not be unduly stimulated.

Adjourned until 9 A. M., Thursday morning, Aug. 16.

THURSDAY MORNING, AUG. 16th, 1877.

The Association was called to order at 9½ o'clock, and the exercises were opened with prayer by Rev. Dr. Messick, of Louisville.

Prof. L. S. THOMPSON, of Sandusky, Ohio, was introduced and read the following paper:

SOME REASONS WHY DRAWING SHOULD BE TAUGHT IN OUR PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Although drawing has found its way into many of our best schools, its entrance has not been undisputed, nor its stay entirely unmolested.

These facts, together with the conviction that drawing should find a welcome place in all our public schools, constitute a sufficient reason why the subject just announced should be considered by so intelligent and progressive a body of educators as The National Educational Association.

It may be said that we have three classes of educators in our country. For our present purpose, these classes may be designated as follows:

The Utilitarian Class, the Disciplinarian Class, and the Æsthetic Class.

In order that any new subject may be introduced into our schools and find a permanent home there, it must be shown that such study has a tendency to promote the views and aims of each of these three classes.

The Utilitarian Class judges the worth of a study by its practical utility in every-day life. Of a new candidate for favor this class asks such questions as these: Of what use is it? Will it enable its possessor to earn money? Can one, by means of it, win his daily bread any easier than without it? Will it give its possessor power or influence in the world?

The second class of educators considers the disciplinary uses of a study of more consequence frequently than the knowledge gained. If a new subject for a study be presented to this class for consideration or adoption, such questions as these are likely to be asked: What effect will it have upon the powers of the mind? Will it strengthen these powers so as to enable the mind to grapple more readily with the problems of life? Will it increase the power of perception, conception, imagination, judgment, or reason? Will it assist the intellect in its onward march in the search of truth?

Previous to the admission of a new study, the Æsthetic Class inquires: What effect will it have upon the taste? Will it increase one's love of nature? Will it strengthen a love for the beautiful in poetry, eloquence, or the fine arts? Will it have a tendency to polish the mind, gratify the fancy, move the affections, soften the rude, or calm the boisterous passions? In short will it warm into activity the higher soul-capacities and thereby assist in elevating man to the highest degree of culture known or imagined in this life?

If the subject of drawing be rationally presented to any of these classes we shall have no fears of an unfavorable answer. The Utilitarian will

readily acknowledge that there is "no person whatever his profession, but, at times, has need of drawing to render his ideas more intelligible to others."

The absolute necessity of this art to the civil engineer, architect, carpenter, stone mason, machinist, engraver, fresco-painter, "and in fact to every artisan, male or female, who is engaged in the construction of objects combining taste with fitness, or beauty with utility, must be obvious to all." When still further the scarcity of skilled artisans is considered, and the demand for such, caused by our increase of mechanical and manufacturing establishments all over the country, the utilitarian will place drawing and designing at the very head of the list of his required studies.

Again the disciplinarian will readily admit that to draw an object one must observe closely, compare patiently one part with another, judge accurately of distances and forms, all of which operations taken together strengthen such powers of the mind as attention, perception, comparison, judgment, etc., etc.

The æsthetic class has always regarded drawing as an aid in lifting the mind above the lower forms of enjoyment to those of a more rational character. It enables one to appreciate and enjoy with keener delight the beauty of the wild old forest, the cliff and mountain, hill and dale, lakelet and river, the stars set in the arch of heaven, cloud, and rainbow. "It opens new fields of enjoyment, new powers of comprehension, and a broader basis for a correct understanding and a sound judgment of whatever belongs to human experience."

With these general remarks let us enter into more details. Let us consider the influence of drawing upon our ordinary school work. We believe that teachers themselves, from the fact, no doubt, that their attention has not been called to it, are not fully impressed with the value of drawing in an elementary educational course. They do not seem to understand that it is intimately connected with all other studies, and instead of robbing them of precious time, it is sharpening and toning up the faculties for the more ready acquirement of other knowledge.

Reading is the key to the storehouse of knowledge in these days of libraries, and must be first taught in our schools. Since all who would enter the temple of learning must possess this key, anything that will hasten the process of teaching reading should be respectfully considered. Drawing does assist in this process. How? In reading we are obliged to name words, which are definite forms, at sight. We recognize words by their general forms, or shapes and not by remembering that each one is composed of certain letters. Drawing trains the eye to distinguish forms quickly. Therefore it has a direct influence in teaching children to read.

We must teach spelling as well as reading so long, at least, as the present orthography remains in use. Good spelling depends on a good memory of forms. "All printers spell, read proof, correct typographical errors, etc., not by language, or by remembering" by the ear "whether a word ends in *tion* or *sion*, or is spelled with *z*, *s*, or *c*, etc., but by the appearances of words—by the eye instead of by rote—by form, not language." "It strikes his eye as correct or incorrect, not his ear." Memory drawing

educates and strengthens the power to recall forms and thus bears directly upon the teaching of spelling.

Writing is one of the most difficult of elementary subjects to teach. It is one that is dreaded by many teachers. Drawing is the elder sister of writing, and they mutually aid each other. The same quick eye and the same skilful hand are necessary in both.

Geography is not only a useful study but a refining one also. Not many of us can travel over the face of the fair earth, to observe for ourselves the shapes of continents, islands, seas, and gulfs. We must study maps. But experience teaches that *gazing* at maps only is not the quickest method of fixing the forms of countries in the memory. Neither is it best to commit to memory long and tedious word descriptions, though never so accurate, of capes, mountains, and courses of rivers. Next to travelling from place to place and observing the situation of cities, islands, lakes, and the courses of rivers, the best thing is to draw maps and locate these places on them. The child that can sketch the course of a river or coast line, does not need to load down its memory with a dry description to be forgotten when it leaves school. For these reasons, the best teachers teach geography by means of drawing.

Drawing assists in the study of arithmetic. In the elementary stages of drawing many exercises are given in the division of lines and surfaces into a certain number of parts. Such drawing lessons make excellent object lessons in numbers. It is not only useful as a means of illustration to the eye, but it cultivates the power of attention or concentration which is indispensable in the study of arithmetic. The power of concentration implies that of abstraction. The person who can abstract his mind from surrounding objects and concentrate it upon a complex problem and hold it there until all the different steps are reasoned out, succeeds in solving such problem. The person who can only hold his attention while considering half the steps, fails to solve such problem. The power of abstraction is the chief mathematical faculty, and probably no school exercise has ever been invented, better calculated to lead the mind away from the concrete to the abstract, than that of inventive drawing, dictation drawing and designing.

Geometry is the science of *form*. The first step in learning geometry is to notice the form of things about us. Drawing forces us to study form and renders the eye quick to notice differences of form. "The second step in learning geometry is to become able to imagine perfect forms, without seeing them drawn." Beginners in this study, without a training in drawing, generally find difficulty in realizing that the lines they see on a flat surface represent anything but lines. They fail frequently to see that a form or volume is represented. Dictation drawing directly cultivates this power of "*seeing in space*," so necessary to the young geometrician.

The Latin, the Greek, and other languages in which the meaning and relation of words often depend on minute differences in termination or inflection, are much more readily learned by those who have had the eye and attention cultivated by a systematic course in drawing.

Drawing is the handmaid to all the natural sciences. Botany, physiol-

ogy, geology, natural history, etc., cannot be pursued in the best way without drawing. The drawing of the leaves, stems, fruits, and flowers of plants, the different parts of animals and the human body, serve to fix their forms in the mind better than it is possible to do it in any other way. The observation necessary to draw a form serves to impress that form on the mind and imagination, while the attempt to represent it by lines and shadows, corrects errors of observation. A description of things in words gives the appearance of knowledge. An investigation of the real things yields real knowledge. Drawing forces us to make this investigation. To draw a thing we must know. To know we must examine minutely.

The close connection which we have attempted to show exists between drawing and all school studies, may tempt some to say that *any* study helps all others. This, to a certain extent, is true. But we believe that no other subject than drawing, except language, is so intimately associated with all legitimate school work. Drawing is a language, a universal language, read and understood by all mankind of whatever nationality or tongue. And because drawing can be used to express our thoughts, it is destined to revolutionize our methods of teaching. Instead of requiring pupils to recite in some particular language we shall more and more demand answers in this general language.

More generally, let us consider the influence of drawing on several faculties of the mind. Attention, or the power of fixing the mind on some particular subject and holding it there, is necessary for success in the pursuit of all knowledge, or for success in any department of life. When drawing is properly taught the power of attention is directly cultivated. It is constantly making demands for close and continued observation. It requires accurate comparison between different objects and the different parts of the same object. The repeated and agreeable exercise of this faculty becomes a fixed habit of the mind, in time, and is unconsciously used in all after life, in reference to all objects of investigation, and to the great advantage of its possessor.

When invention and composition in drawing, or simple designing, are taught, as they may be, in our schools, they become powerful aids in the cultivation of the taste, reason, and imagination. When by simple and progressive exercises, children discover that they have the power to re-arrange lines and forms already learned, and even to create new figures and designs, the imagination becomes active, and the whole mind is aroused to greater activity in the pursuit of abstract knowledge.

Closely allied to this is the power of conception. Children should be taught to remember forms, and, by re-arranging them in their minds, encouraged to form mental pictures different from what they may have seen. From the formation of concepts of this kind it is only an easy step to the formation of concepts in other departments of thought.

It is this power of conception that enables a mechanic or artisan to see the form he would produce in the rude material in which he works. It enables the wagon-maker to see the axle-tree and other parts of a wagon in the wood from which he makes them. By this power the potter sees the beautiful vase in the clay before him, the stone cutter sees the chaste

form of the Ionic or Corinthian capital in a stone, and the sculptor sees the statue in the unshapely block of marble.

The higher exercise of this power is beautifully illustrated by an anecdote told of Michael Angelo. As he was one day rambling, in his holiday attire, with some friends, in an out-of-the-way street in Florence, he suddenly turned aside to what proved to be a block of marble, nearly covered with dirt and rubbish, and began to work upon it to remove the mire in which it lay. His friends seeing nothing but a worthless piece of rock asked him in astonishment what he was going to do with it. "Oh! there's an angel in the stone," was his answer, "and I must get it out." He had it taken to his studio, where with much patience and labor with mallet and chisel, "*he let the angel out.*" What to others was but a rude, unsightly mass of stone, to his educated eye was the buried glory of art; and he discovered at a glance what might be made of it. A mason would have put it into a stone wall; a cartman would have used it in filling in, or to grade the streets; but he transformed it into a creation of genius, and gave it a value for ages to come."

Teachers sometimes urge against the introduction of drawing, that there is no time. We wish it distinctly understood, however, that drawing does not seek admission into our schools for the purpose of diminishing attainments in other branches of useful study, but as a handmaid to all of them, and as a relief from overstudy. Parents sometimes complain that we as superintendents and teachers have been driving their children through the mazes of reading, word method, phonic method, writing, spelling, mental arithmetic, written arithmetic, geography, object lessons, botany lessons, physiology lessons, physics, compositions, language lessons, grammar lessons, etc., etc., with a speed, little, if any, less than dangerous to their health and constitutions. Drawing comes in not to increase this study, but to moderate it, by relaxing the mind and improving and enlivening our methods of instruction; by furnishing more for the hands to do while the excited brain is comparatively at rest. We plead then for the introduction of drawing in behalf of the children in our schools who are in danger of being over-worked.

Having attempted to show that the study of drawing more than pays for its time and cost, in its favorable influence on the studies already in our schools, we shall now attempt to show that it is not only valuable *inside* of the school-room, but that, *outside* of it, it has a practical bearing on most of the professions and vocations of life, and 'eminently deserves the name of "bread-winner." We cannot introduce shoe-making, tailoring, nor any other mechanical trade into our schools, but in the absence of these occupations, we can teach facility in the use of pencil, ruler, square, and compass, which we believe to be an excellent preparation for the handling of the various tools used in these vocations. It is estimated that nine-tenths of all the occupations into which labor is divided require a knowledge of drawing, and that the remaining one-tenth receives the lowest wages. Every thing that is well made—"from a toy-house to a cathedral, from a stove-pipe to a locomotive engine—is made from a drawing."

It is generally supposed that not much skill is required to dig a ditch or throw up an embankment for a railroad track. Let us for a moment see

what effect drawing will have upon the work of the ditch digger or railroad hand. If his eye and judgment have been trained by drawing, he can dig a straighter and better ditch and do it in less time than if he has had no instruction of this kind. Why? Because his trained eye sees at a glance just what is to be done at each particular stage of the work. He knows when he is digging too deep or not deep enough, and wastes no time in making mistakes to be corrected afterward. Such a man soon shows his superiority, while his fellow-workmen, with stronger muscles, it may be, but with less skill, must be content with lower wages.

The carpenter, bridge-builder, or shipbuilder, who understands drawing, is not only able to read and use the drawings made by others for his direction, but he can make them for himself, or for others, and thus lift himself above the mere drudgery of his trade. He will be called upon to do the work that requires the most skill and consequently that commands the best wages. The way is open before him for becoming a skilled architect and superintendent of building construction, while his ignorant companions continue to plod through life without any prospect of advancement.

The blacksmith who can draw, can also work more skilfully than he could do without such knowledge. If any ornamental work is to be done, or work requiring knowledge rather than strength, he gets it, while the man who works by "rule of thumb" does the drudgery of his trade and receives lower wages. He has the elements of becoming, with practice and perseverance, a skilful machinist or artificer in iron, while the great mass of his co-laborers who neglect this means of training, will go on pounding iron as they were taught by their ignorant masters, without once suspecting the reason they are not advanced.

The stone-mason, or marble cutter, who has been trained to draw, may become something more than a day laborer who lays down his zinc pattern, made by another, and, after marking around it, clips away the stone until it is the right shape. He becomes an expert carver, he originates designs and patterns of his own, and finds the field of sculpture open before him, inviting him to partake of the pleasures and honors of the plastic art.

The wagon-maker, the cabinet-maker, the plasterer, wood-carver, cooper, jeweller, milliner, dress-maker, the machinist, and every kind of mechanic, each and all, daily and hourly, use the same kind of power in judging of forms, lines, and curves that a proper training in drawing gives. To sum up the Utilitarian phase of the subject in a few words, we live in a universe of matter. We are surrounded by it on all sides. We "live, move, and have our being" in it. All matter has extension, the result of which is form. The forms of matter are infinitely varied—some regular and some irregular; some simple and others very complex; some beautiful and all governed by law and very interesting. In the battle for material existence we are struggling to change the form or shape of the various kinds of matter around us. With the exception of some very small classes the people of the world are engaged in the preparation, production, and distribution of different forms of matter. The production or preparation of matter for use or exchange generally consists in a change of its form. Thus, the wagon-maker changes trees into wagons, the carpenter changes them into houses, the shipbuilder, into ships; the tailor changes the form of cloth into that

of garments; the brick-maker changes clay into brick, the potter changes it into useful wares, and the artist uses it to give shape to cherished conceptions. He who has the best knowledge of the forms that surround him and the greatest power to change those forms according to his will, is the best able to cope with his surroundings and thus render himself the fittest to survive. God is supreme over all matter because he can at will change its form. When "the earth was without form and void," he called forth the fishes in the sea, the birds in the air, and man in his own image. He who would become God-like in power and skill must be a master of form. He must not only know forms when presented before him, but he must know the possibilities of form.

Again in connection with the trades and professions heretofore enumerated, this fact, demonstrated hundreds of times, by actual experience, should not be overlooked: that a boy who has been trained to draw from childhood, will learn any of these trades, or any other mechanical business, in about one-half of the time that is required by the boy of equal talent, but having no previous instruction in drawing. This point becomes still more important when taken in connection with another well-known fact, that, "owing to the abandonment of the old system of apprenticeship, by which young persons were trained to become skilful workmen in the various employments and trades, and from the bitter opposition of trades-unions to the training of youth in their various occupations, it has become almost impossible for a parent to procure for his children such industrial training as will make them skilful artisans."

It may be said that in this enumeration of the advantages of drawing to the different mechanical trades and employments, we have left out the farmer, one of the most numerous class of all occupations. But to the ambitious farmer, a skilled eye and trained hand cannot be useless. A knowledge of drawing enables him the better to lay off his grounds and divide his fields. By it he plants his orchard and vines, he plans his houses and barns, adapting them to their circumstances and uses. By it he describes in the universal language of drawing, as well as in word, "the peculiar vegetation, the name of which he does not know, and the kind of insect which destroys his crop." By the culture it gives him, he will make straighter corn rows, keep his fences and gates in better order, and there will be an appearance of order and good taste about his premises that will not only be pleasant and gratifying to the eye, but will add a money value to his farm.

Again the farmer of fifty and twenty-five years ago cannot compete with the farmer of to-day. The farmer of the future must not only know how to use the hoe, the plow, and the sickle, but he must be enough of a mechanic and an engineer to know how to use the mower, the reaper, the drill, and frequently the steam-engine. He may not need the skill of the cabinet-maker, but he does need the skill to make a board fence, a gate, to put in a spoke, mend a strap, set up a reaper, paint a wagon, and lay a drain. The danger of making a man Jack-of-all-trades and master of none" may be real in the case of a professional mechanic, but in the case of the farmer a little skill in the use of tools, often makes the difference between a clever and an awkward farmer, the difference between success and fail-

ure. Many farmers will testify to the loss of precious hours and even days, involving partial losses of crops, because of inability to make simple repairs which any one might learn to make.

Thus far we have considered the practical uses of drawing, outside of the school-room, to boys and men. Why teach drawing to girls? Most women are intimately connected with housekeeping. They either keep house for themselves or others, or they are called upon to decide when it is well done. Much of the difference between good and bad housekeeping consists in the amount of taste and skill displayed in the arrangement of furniture, pictures, and other household effects. The woman of taste and training, though poor in this world's goods, makes a more pleasing and satisfying home than her rich neighbor without this culture. The mother trained to draw in her youth will cut out clothing for her children, or others, not only so as to be more pleasing, but also in a more economical manner, saving both time and cloth. When drawing and designing have been well taught in our schools for some time, we shall find women becoming engravers on wood and stone, designers of ornaments for calico printing, for carpets, oil-cloths, wall-papers, etc., and decorators of pottery and table-ware. Thus many light employments, requiring taste and skill, rather than strength, and which have hitherto been monopolized by men, will be open to women. It is said that "In London more than a thousand girls earn a handsome living by making designs for illustrated books, prints, etc." Those who visited the Centennial Exhibition last summer remember the beautiful displays of decorated pottery,—the almost numberless cases and pavilions filled with beautiful vases and useful wares. The Doulton ware and Lambeth faience especially will be called to mind. "Six years ago no such beautiful things were made in England." "All the decoration on these objects is done by hand," said the gentleman who explained the process. "We made up our mind at the outset that we would have no mechanical art; would print no patterns; and we have never made two articles alike. All our work-people—our decorators, especially—are native born English folk and nearly three-fourths of them are women." "About fifty young ladies are employed in these studios, and all are well paid."

Centennial visitors will also remember the elaborately-carved furniture, consisting of carved doors, organ and piano cases, bedsteads, cabinets, etc., from the Cincinnati School of Design for Women. With such inviting fields of usefulness and independence as these thrown open to energetic and capable women, who will wish to deprive the girls of our public schools of the privilege of learning to draw?

We might go on and multiply examples of trades and professions that are directly benefited by the training that drawing gives, but we think enough has been said to convince most thinking persons that drawing is not an accomplishment merely, as many suppose, but one of the most practical of all the studies in common or high-school courses.

Still pursuing this utilitarian phase of the subject, let us pass by for the present the advantages of drawing to the individual and consider its influence upon state and national prosperity.

The history of the world is a history of conflicts. Far too many of them

have been upon fields of battle, amid the hissing of bullets and the roar of cannon. Hitherto nations have tried to excel each other in the invention of implements with which they might the most rapidly and certainly cut and hew each other to pieces. They have been wont to measure each other's power and influence in the world by the number of vessels of war in their navies, the number of cannon in their arsenals, and the number of soldiers in their standing armies.

Of late years, however, *industrial* conflicts, less sanguinary but not less decisive, have been absorbing the attention of the leading nations. They are struggling with each other "on educational fields, in industrial science, in art, and industry," and for the supremacy in the markets of the world. European nations have foreseen the importance of these contests, and for twenty-five or thirty years have been earnestly engaged in direct preparation for these bloodless battles. These preparations have not been made by the casting of cannon and the building of iron-clad steamers, but by the creation of museums filled with the rarest and most costly products of industrial art; by the establishment of drawing-schools; by arming every child with a lead pencil, ruler, and compass, and teaching him how to use them. It has long since been proclaimed that "The pen is mightier than the sword," but we have yet to learn practically that "The pencil is the most efficient ally of the needle-gun."

In our own country we have been of necessity absorbed in clearing off forests, building railroads, telegraphs, and attending generally to the ruder necessities of civilization, not omitting the accumulation of wealth. Having had some success in these directions, we find the number of persons engaged in such occupations as are calculated to make life more comfortable, and such as are calculated to adorn our homes and embellish our lives, is more rapidly increasing than the number engaged in providing for our actual necessities. Statisticians find as a consequence that the population of the cities and towns is gaining on that of the country. Whether we like this tendency or not, we cannot prevent it so long as the invention of labor-saving machinery continues. Our nation as a whole cannot be prosperous if our cities and towns are prostrated, because agriculture must have consumers for its products. Cities and towns cannot flourish without manufactures. Manufactures cannot exist without drawing or the cultivation of the eye, the hand and the taste which is most expeditiously and economically obtained through a drill in drawing. The more artistic the manufacture the more need of drawing, and the more profitable the manufacture becomes to state or nation.

Art manufactures have the advantage over ruder ones, for several reasons. They have the advantage in transportation. "It costs but little to transport skill and taste, but a great deal, comparatively, to transport ignorance and raw material." Such manufactures have the advantage because they produce a better population—a better population, because more intelligent—more intelligent, because artistic manufactures cannot be produced without intelligence. Such a population has more money, more comfort, more refinement. It has more money because it is better paid. It can spend and does spend more for churches, schools, and the higher wants of the mind.

We have said the different nations are competing with each other, and watching each other's movements upon the field of art industry, as eagerly as ever they have done so on the field of battle. This matter of competition between nations is becoming of overwhelming importance. Owing to the multiplication of railroads, steamships, and telegraphs, our competitors are not our neighbors only, but "the whole world beyond the seas and on the opposite side of the planet." Distance counts for less and less every year, while skill rises in value in the same ratio. It is of the utmost importance, then, that we know what other nations and states are doing in this matter of drawing and industrial art training. If your antagonist is armed with a revolver you do not care to meet him in deadly conflict, if armed only with a pop-gun. If European nations are sending forth into their workshops thousands of trained artisans every year, we cannot cope with them by native ability alone. We cannot protect our home market by tariffs. Tariffs may prevent our buying what our higher tastes desire, by excluding it from the market, but they cannot force us to buy that which our taste condemns. "There is but one way for any country to meet foreign competition in its home market, and that is, to put as much taste and skill in its home manufacture as the foreigner puts into his."

Let us inquire what some of the leading foreign countries are doing for the advancement of art manufactures. "At the Universal Exposition of 1851, England found herself, by general consent, almost at the bottom of the list, among all the countries of the world, in respect of her art manufactures. Only the United States among the great nations stood below her." She became alarmed at this state of affairs and appointed commissioners to investigate the cause. She discovered that her competitors were giving more attention to industrial drawing than she had been doing. She immediately established art schools all over the kingdom. At the Exposition of 1862 she found she was making creditable progress in art manufactures. At the Paris Exposition of 1867, England stood among the foremost, and in some branches of manufacture, distanced the most artistic nations. It was the schools of art that accomplished this great result in the period of sixteen years. "The United States still held her place at the foot of the column," and, we are sorry to say it, remains too near the foot yet.

For a hundred years or more, drawing has played an important part in the industrial education of the French. Their wealth, according to good authority, is owing principally to their drawing schools, which are said to be the mainstays of their art industry to-day. By means of this art culture in their schools, they have raised themselves to the mastery of the departments of art and art manufacture. Although France has been engaged in many costly wars and her national debt is burdensome, she surprised Germany and all the rest of the world, by paying off her late war-indebtedness before it was due. How was she enabled to do this? Her art manufactures are demanded by every civilized country in the world. Her industrial products having more of taste and skill than of bulk, cost less for transportation than breadstuffs and raw materials; hence she commands the markets of the world for just those manufactures that it is to the interest of any nation to produce. A late writer in

the commercial department of the New-York *Independent* says: "We are now paying a good many millions of dollars yearly to France for *mere style* in cotton goods, and calicoes may be seen lying on the same counters in our dry goods stores, not very different in material value, which differ in price full five hundred per cent. It is the elegance, the superior taste, the artistic designs of French calicoes which impart to them a value in ladies' eyes which our own calicoes do not possess, and it should be the aim of our manufacturers to compete with them either in our own or in foreign markets."

It would be interesting to show how the remaining European countries regard this matter of industrial drawing. Suffice it to say that Germany, Austria, Belgium, and Russia stand in the front rank with France and England while all are vying with each other for excellency in industrial art manufactures.

This impulse in favor of educating all so as to give the seeing eye and the ready hand has been wafted over the Atlantic Ocean and has found its first lodgment on Plymouth Rock. Massachusetts, with a never-failing instinct as to how money is to be made, has passed a law, (in 1870,) *requiring* drawing to be taught in all her common schools, and establishing evening schools for giving instruction in drawing to all persons over fifteen years of age. We find these evening schools filled with persons of all ages from fifteen to sixty years. Even these older students are eager to learn, and as they become sensible of what they have lost, they bemoan the fate that prevented their learning to draw when younger.

In the spring of 1875, the State of New York, following the example of Massachusetts, passed a law making drawing a compulsory study. This law went into operation the first day of October, of the same year, and the school authorities are doing all they can to make the introduction of this study universal. Within the last year we understand that Pennsylvania has been making earnest efforts for the advancement of industrial drawing in her common schools.

It requires no prophet to foresee what is to be the result. It seems almost useless to say, that unless the Western, Southern, and Southwestern States begin to meet this advanced movement in favor of drawing by a similar movement in our schools, these Eastern States, on account of the superior skill of their workmen, will bring us under a more exacting tribute than we are at present. They will continue to send us calicoes, carpets, furniture, and other art manufactures which we ought to produce at home, and we shall continue to delve in the earth in order to produce the raw material to send to them in exchange. We shall find it will take a great deal of corn, wheat, cotton, and wool, to buy a small quantity of prints and other *finer* fabrics which we consider desirable.

We feel that it is useless to say more in favor of the practical and disciplinary value of drawing. The American people are said to be eminently practical. Hence it would seem only necessary to show them that a want exists in order to have it supplied. The Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia last year has given us a strong push in the right direction. We have come home convinced, I have no doubt, that we are behind other first-class countries in the matter of art education, and that if we wish to

hold our own in the markets of the world, we must give our children the best possible advantages for training their eyes and their hands. We ought to be convinced, I think, that no other subject of study is now so much needed in our schools; that "nothing else could add such rapid wealth to the country—wealth of tasteful production, and wealth of enjoyment of tasteful products."

Let us now turn to the æsthetic phase of the subject and contemplate some of the pleasures and enjoyments that may be enlarged, if not created, by a training in drawing. A person trained in art, in the language of Addison, "is let into a great many pleasures that the vulgar are not capable of receiving. He can converse with a picture, and find an agreeable companion in a statue. He meets with a secret refreshment in a description, and often feels a greater satisfaction in the prospect of fields and meadows than another does in the possession. It gives him, indeed, a kind of property in everything he sees, and makes the most rude, uncultivated parts of nature administer to his pleasures; so that he looks upon the world, as it were, in another light, and discovers in it a multitude of charms that conceal themselves from the generality of mankind."

The love of the beautiful and the desire for ornament, are as natural and universal as any other desire of human nature. "For some gratification of taste, what privations have not men submitted to, and those the very last of their race whom it would be proper to call foolish or visionary." The universal efforts of mankind show that "beauty of effect and decoration are no more a luxury in a civilized state of society than warmth and clothing are a luxury to any state." They make manifest a positive want that cannot be neglected without great injury to human character. This desire is one of the earliest to manifest itself. Man in a savage state frequently feels the need of ornamenting his body even before he feels the need of clothing it. This longing for ornament is entirely absent in none, and it grows in the same ratio as progress in civilization. As man advances in culture and refinement he is no more satisfied with the decoration of his rude tent or wigwam, but he seeks gratification in the beauties of architecture, painting, and sculpture.

Ideality, or a love of the beautiful, being a constituent element of man's nature, we find the world affords abundant opportunity for the exercise of this faculty. We are surrounded by beauty on all sides. "Nature is one vast galaxy of beauty." "All along the wild old forest God has carved the forms of beauty. Every cliff, and mountain, and tree is a statue of beauty. Every leaf, and stem, and vine, and flower, is a form of beauty. Every hill, and dale, and landscape, is a picture of beauty. Every cloud, and mist-wreath, and vapor-vail, is a shadowy reflection of beauty. Every spring and rivulet, lakelet, river, and ocean, is a glassy mirror of beauty. Every diamond, and rock, and pebbly beach, is a mine of beauty. Every sun, and planet, and star, is a blazing face of beauty. All along the aisles of earth, all over the arches of heaven, all through the expanses of the universe, are scattered in rich and infinite profusion the life-gems of beauty." "From the mote that plays its little frolic in the sunbeam, to the world that blazes along the sapphire spaces of the firmament, are visible the ever-varying features of the enrapturing spirit of beauty." And

yet these enchanting scenes of beauty are a comparatively sealed book to the great mass of mankind. We are made conscious of all this beauty only by means of sight, the noblest of the senses. Ruskin says: "The more I think of it, I find this conclusion more impressed upon me, that the greatest thing a human soul ever does in this world is to see something, and to tell what it saw in a plain way. Hundreds of people can talk to one who thinks, but thousands can think to one who can see."

Something more than eyes are necessary, however, that we may see. Right seeing comes from training. Anything that cultivates the power of correct vision, really enlarges the world for us, for whatever is not seen or perceived by us, might as well not exist, so far as we are concerned. Drawing is a means to open our blind eyes to the beauties of nature and art which surround us, in the greatest profusion, but of which many of us are entirely unconscious. It brings us into contact with nature in her most pleasing and elevating aspect; and through "that elder scripture, writ by God's own hand," we are led to "look through nature up to nature's God." Cousin says "God is necessarily the last reason, the ultimate foundation, the completed ideal of all beauty. This is the marvellous beauty that Diotimus had caught a glimpse of, and thus paints to SOCRATES in the *Banquet* :

"Eternal beauty, unbegotten and imperishable, exempt from decay as well as increase, which is not beautiful in such a part and ugly in such another, beautiful only, at such a time, in such a place, in such a relation, beautiful for some, ugly for others, beauty that has no sensible form, no visage, no hands, nothing corporeal, which is not such a thought, or such a particular science, which resides not in any being different from itself, as an animal, the earth, or the heavens, or any other thing, which is absolutely identical and invariable by itself, in which all other beauties participate, in such a way, nevertheless, that their birth or their destruction neither diminishes nor increases, nor in the least changes it! * * * * In order to arrive at this perfect beauty, it is necessary to commence with the beauties of this lower world, and, the eyes being fixed upon the supreme beauty, to elevate ourselves unceasingly towards it, by passing, thus to speak, through all the degrees of the scale, from a single beautiful body to two, from two to all others, from beautiful bodies to beautiful sentiments, from beautiful sentiments to beautiful thoughts, until from thought to thought we arrive at the highest thought, which has no other object than the beautiful itself, until we end by knowing it as it is itself."

Finally, of the youth who has been properly trained in drawing and art, and who has learned to love the beautiful forms that everywhere surround him, we may say, in the language of another, that, "God's glory of the sunset—all of the divine offerings in the natural world—will be his while life lasts, and when the white veil of flesh standing between him and his hereafter falls away from him into the bosom of demanding earth, memory will keep her seat in the mysterious intelligence he calls his soul, and hold them sacred to him forever."

The following resolutions offered by the Committee on The Bureau of Education were read and adopted:

The committee to which was referred the resolutions relating to the National Bureau of Education having had the same under consideration respectfully submit the following

REPORT:

The Bureau of Education was brought into existence by an act of Congress passed and approved in the year 1866, in accordance with the request of this Association, represented by the Department of Superintendence, at its meeting held in Washington during that year. It is, therefore, in a large sense the ward of the Association, and is especially entitled to our earnest support and active influence in the prosecution of the important work committed to its hands.

The objects of the Bureau are, first, to collect, compile, and publish, all available information concerning the history, condition, and progress of education, not only in our own country, but throughout the civilized world.

Second, to disseminate this information through annual and special reports, circulars of information, and such other publications as may be available for the purpose, and by official and personal correspondence. It has no power over education, educational institutions, agencies or authorities in the several States. Its influence is, so to speak, simply a moral one, appealing to and securing the voluntary efforts of school officers and the friends of education generally.

The results already achieved by the Bureau have hitherto fully met, if they have not surpassed, the expectations of the active friends of education throughout the country, although it must be confessed that it has been obliged to perform its functions, almost from the beginning, under circumstances of peculiar embarrassment, owing primarily to inadequate appropriations. It has prepared, published, and distributed seven annual reports of the most comprehensive and valuable character. The number of these documents thus distributed to institutions, school officers, and educators, as well as to foreign governments, mounts up into the hundreds of thousands. It has published and disseminated tens of thousands of circulars of information upon special subjects, such as Art Education, and Normal Schools, together with several on the Systems of Education in foreign countries, and other topics. It issued last year an elaborate, illustrated volume upon the public libraries of the United States, crowded with information upon every topic connected with these great educational agencies, even to the details of binding, arranging, cataloguing, and shelving the volumes. This work is probably the most comprehensive and valuable ever issued upon the subject, and is a monument to the intelligence, industry, and efficiency of the Bureau, and an honor to the country. A similar volume on Art Education and Art Schools which will be a complete compendium of Art Education in the United States is nearly ready and will in due time appear. Through its immense correspondence with individuals, school officials, and foreign governments, giving information and advice upon every phase of the educational work, the Bureau

is perhaps performing a service quite as useful and important as through its printed media of communication. It has quite recently distributed a report on the system of Public Instruction and the Civil Service in China, prepared in that distant country by a resident American educator, Pres. WILLIAM A. P. MARTIN, LL. D., of the Imperial College at Peking, and also the annual report of the Minister of Education in Australia for the year 1875, affording the opportunity for a comparison of systems, methods, and results between those countries and our own. But it does not come within the scope of this report to give a detailed account of the work that has been and is being performed by the Bureau, and the Committee beg leave to allude briefly to its needs and embarrassments.

First, it wants a permanent, commodious, and convenient habitation. From the inception of the movement under Commissioner BARNARD this Bureau has been subject to frequent changes of location, sometimes consigned to the basement and at others to the lofts of public or private buildings. Recently it has been compelled to remove from the comparatively comfortable quarters near the Interior Department to the rooms already occupied by the Census Bureau and which are totally inadequate to its pressing needs, in consequence of the failure of the appropriations necessary to pay the rent thereof.

Second, its clerical force is altogether inadequate to perform the great amount of work which has accumulated and is constantly pressing upon its hands.

Third, the appropriations made for the publication of its annual reports are so meagre that the demand for these invaluable documents is far beyond the supply.

In brief, the support of the Bureau is entirely out of proportion to its great importance, to its just desert, and to the demands made upon it by a people to whom education is as essential as the common air and the common sunshine to vegetable and animal life. Another important fact in connection with this matter is that large donations of material have been made to the Bureau by foreign governments represented at the Centennial, as a nucleus for a great pedagogical museum. Other donations have been promised, and there is no doubt that could adequate provision be made therefor, but a few years would elapse before we should begin at least to approximate other nations in the magnificence of these collections for the illustrations of every phase of this mighty problem of universal education. But with no proper repository even for the storage of these treasures we are placed in a most embarrassing, not to say humiliating, position through the enlightened action of our generous neighbors across the sea, who having borrowed from us the grand conception of popular education seem determined to outstrip us in the race for supremacy in its execution.

In view of all the facts that have come to the knowledge of the Committee; in view also of the supreme importance of liberally sustaining and increasing the influence and efficiency of this all-important agency, the Committee submit for the consideration and action of the Association the following series of resolutions as expressive of their conclusions in the premises:

Resolved, That the National Educational Association hereby re-affirms its profound conviction of the great value of the National Bureau of Education as an agency for collecting, collating, and diffusing that information which is a vital necessity to the welfare and progress of schools and school systems under a government of the people for the people and by the people.

Resolved, That we urge upon Congress the imperative necessity of making adequate and liberal pecuniary provision for the support of the Bureau and for the preparation, publication, and distribution of its invaluable reports, circulars of information, and such other documents as are constantly and increasingly demanded by the great army of Educational workers throughout our extended country.

Resolved, That we believe a permanent building of suitable proportions and arrangements for the accommodation of an adequate clerical force, for the preservation of the rapidly-increasing professional library, and for the reception and classification of the generous donations already made, and to be made by foreign countries, as well as by our own people to the pedagogical museum, is a prime necessity, and that speedy provision for the same ought to be made by our national authorities.

Resolved, That the Association also hereby re-affirms its cordial approval of the measures which have been pending before Congress for several years or some proper modification of the same involving the general principles of said measures, providing for the permanent investment of the proceeds of the sales of the public lands annually accruing, as a national fund, the income from which shall be apportioned among the several States under the the supervision of the Bureau of Education upon a proper basis of distribution for the benefit of common schools, normal education, and for the more complete endowment and support of the industrial and technical colleges already established or which may be hereafter established in the several States under the act of Congress approved July, 1862.

Resolved, That a committee of five consisting of the President and President-elect of this Association, President BOWMAN, of Kentucky, Mr. WICKERSHAM, of Pennsylvania, and Prof. HOGG, of Texas, be appointed to wait upon the President of the United States at the earliest practicable date to lay before him the views of the Association upon the subject-matter of this report and request his favorable consideration of the same in his forthcoming message.

Resolved, That a committee of fifteen members of the Association be appointed by the President thereof to act in conjunction with the committees of similar bodies and in co-operation with the department of Superintendence at its winter meeting, with instructions to prepare a memorial to Congress embodying the views herein expressed, and urging such legislation as shall be substantially in harmony therewith.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

WILLIAM F. PHELPS, of Wisconsin,
J. P. WICKERSHAM, of Pennsylvania,
JOHN HANCOCK, of Ohio,
S. H. WHITE, of Illinois,
J. ORMOND WILSON, of Washington, D. C.
Committee.

THE NATIONAL MUSEUM.

Mr. J. ORMOND WILSON of the same Committee reported the following on the National Museum :

The Educational value of comprehensive and classified collections of articles illustrating the resources and products of different countries, and of the various industries of man, has been impressed upon the world by means of the brilliant series of "World's Fairs" or, as they may be definitely termed, "Exhibitions of the Industries of all nations" which, beginning with that of Hyde Park, London, in 1851, culminated at Philadelphia in 1876. It is no longer necessary to support the utility of such collections by argument. The term "Museum," which once meant in popular estimation little more than a musty collection of useless curiosities, has been infused with new life, and now means the most active Educational influence known to modern civilization.

Object teaching is found to have new significance, and to be of world-wide application. Educationists early saw that this power was as applicable to the rapid dissemination of a knowledge of the methods and appliances of the science of Education, as it was to that of the Arts and manufactures, and the Education Collection begun in England by the Society of Arts, and first exhibited in 1854, has become,—partly by government aid, and largely by individual contributions,—a most important branch of the South-Kensington Museum, embracing, as it does, a collection of over 20,000 volumes of Educational books, and many thousands of models and appliances for Educational purposes; the list of these alone,—brought down to the end of 1875,—filling a volume of over 870 closely-printed pages. Russia, Austria, and Italy, have followed the example of England in establishing general Educational Museums; while most of the other European countries possess each several Museums adapted to various branches of Technical and Industrial Instruction.

On this continent our neighbors of the Dominion of Canada have set the example of organizing such a collection, the value and utility of which were made evident to all by means of the remarkable educational exhibit displayed at Philadelphia by the Province of Ontario.

While no governmental Educational Museum has ever yet been organized by the United States, the advisability of making such a collection has been realized, and its creation urged.

The Exhibition at Philadelphia afforded an unprecedented opportunity for obtaining a quantity of material from the various countries of the world, at the cost of little trouble and comparatively trifling expense. Unfortunately Congress made no appropriation in aid of this, and in consequence the opportunity could not be availed of in any adequate measure, and the Educationists of the country were compelled to see a magnificent opportunity pass away comparatively unimproved. However it was impossible but that much should remain. In the preparations made by the United States Commissioner of Education to secure statistical material bearing on the Educational history of the past century, and in the material designed to represent the various systems and appliances of *Education in all its phases as presented in the United States*, there was

gathered in the Government Building the nucleus of a most interesting collection; most of which became the property of the Government, and needs but the natural growth and development which would follow its installation in a suitable place to become most valuable to all Educators; while its value will be greatly enhanced by its conjunction with the rare and unique Educational Library already possessed by the United States Bureau of Education, and which is being rapidly increased by means of the systematic exchange of educational publications, conducted by the Commissioner, with Foreign officials.

Although unable to obtain anything by purchase, many gifts were made to the Commissioner by foreign individuals and Governments, so that, in fact, a very large Educational collection, comprising many thousands of separate articles, is now stored in Washington awaiting the action of Congress. This comprises, first, the most of the collections exhibited at Philadelphia by the United States Commissioner; viz: the statistical charts, maps, and diagrams, prepared at the Bureau of Education expressly for the Exhibition, and which give a most clear and comprehensive view of the statistics of Education, both public and private, in the United States. Second, the models, publications, furniture, apparatus, and school appliances, etc., exhibited. Third, the views of colleges, universities, and schools which formed such an attractive feature of the Exhibition. Fourth, the very valuable collection illustrating the progress of Education among the Indians. In addition to these articles, the very complete and interesting Educational Exhibit, made at the suggestion of the United States Commissioner of Education, by the government of Japan, has been presented to the Commissioner as a donation to the contemplated National Educational Museum. This collection is full of interest, first, as showing most clearly the habits, methods, and material of education in Japan before the contact with European civilization, and secondly, the progress made up to 1876 in adopting the methods and appliances of European Education. A complete set of mechanical and chemical apparatus manufactured by their own "School of Arts and Manufactures," fills one large case, while samples of school furniture now used and of all other school appliances, bring into sharp contrast the old and the new.

A very fine collection of school material from the Ontario exhibit, valued at about \$1,100, and presented to the Educational Museum at Washington, fills a large room. Many valuable gifts from Austria, Germany, and Switzerland, add to the interest of the collection and show how readily, by a system of international exchange, such as is carried on by the "Smithsonian Institution," this Educational Museum at Washington could be developed into an institution where Americans could see for themselves all the new and improved educational appliances of other nations without being compelled, as now, to cross the sea. In a properly organized museum wherein every department of material relating to education, whether concerning the proper building, lighting, heating, and ventilating of school-rooms, and their furnishing; or the best text-books and apparatus, should be constantly on exhibition, arranged under intelligent supervision; it is easy to see that the Educators of the country would possess

the means of avoiding many mistakes and of readily keeping themselves informed of the best results of the efforts of Educators throughout the world to extend, develop, and improve the all-important science of education.

In view of the great necessity that is felt for some such central repository where all the facts relating to the various needs of public education can be readily ascertained; and in view of the fact that so satisfactory a commencement has been already made towards founding a National Educational Museum as is shown by the collections of articles, and of the educational library now in charge of the United States Commissioner of Education at Washington, it is the opinion of this Committee that it is the duty of Congress to make suitable provision for the collection, preservation, and care of a National Educational Museum, which shall meet the needs of the Educators and of the public.

Dr. RUFUS C. BURLISON, of Waco, Texas, read the following:

EDUCATIONAL INTERESTS OF TEXAS.

MR. PRESIDENT:

I am requested to discuss in your presence the educational interests of Texas.

To me it is a solemn yet pleasing coincidence that just thirty years ago on the soil of Kentucky, and on the banks of this beautiful Ohio, I consecrated my life to Texas. Just thirty years ago having torn my heart away from the scenes of my *Alma Mater* I passed through this goodly city to plunge into the wilds of that Empire State.

Since that time in the interests of Christian education I have penetrated every corner and crossed every river and every broad prairie from the Medina to the Sabine, and from the Gulf of Mexico to Red River.

The hero of the *Æneid* could say of the struggles of his beloved Troy "*Omnia quorum vidi et magna pars fui.*" Though I cannot say "*magna pars fui,*" I can say of the educational interests of Texas "*omnia quorum vidi.*"

However, to understand fully the magnitude of the educational interests of Texas, I must remind you briefly of the vastness of her territory, her climate, her fertility, and mighty resources.

Texas, as you are aware, is seven times larger than Kentucky.

Texas is larger than all the New-England States, Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Virginia, New Jersey, and Delaware, combined.

All these States combined have only an area of 267,356 square miles, while Texas has 274,356,—making it 7,000 square miles larger than all of them. But if this vast territory were filled up with "Sahas" or "Dis-mal Swamps," or with barren rocks and sterile mountains, its educational interests might not so justly claim the attention of this learned assembly of great American educators.

• But it is a fact that no State between the oceans has so little sterile, worthless land, as Texas.

Texas when settled as densely as France or Massachusetts can support 40,000,000 of freemen without the least necessity for "strikes," or cries for "bread," "bread," "bread."

The Life-Insurance Companies have demonstrated that in point of health and longevity, no State on this continent surpasses Texas. Again, it is worth remembering that for 750 miles Texas is fanned by the cool, refreshing breezes of the Gulf of Mexico, the Mediterranean of the New World.

And it is a remarkable, yet philosophical fact, that all the grandest thinkers, and all the highest types of civilization of the Old World, flourished within 100 miles of the Mediterranean Sea, and within the 27th and 49th degrees of north latitude.

Greece and Rome, Egypt and The Holy Land, are within these lines. All the sages, all the poets, all the prophets, apostles, and martyrs flourished within these lines. Texas is within these lines of light and civilization.

Then from the vastness of her territory, the fertility of her soil, and her genial climate, my beloved and adopted State may well invite the earnest consideration of this learned assembly. Indeed Texas is already claiming the attention of the whole world. Of her 1,700,000 inhabitants, there are about 150,000 Germans, 15,000 Mexicans, 3,000 Bohemians, 3,000 Poles, 2,000 Norwegians. Of the 300,000 immigrants that crowd our shores annually they come from the Granite Hills of New England, from the Red Hills of Georgia and South Carolina, from every kingdom in Europe, and the Celestial Empire of China.

I trust, Mr. President, if I seem to you or any brother or sister teacher here too extravagant in my estimate of Texas, you will remember a Poet laureate has said, "I am a part of all I have met." And I have met so much of Texas in the last thirty years, and so little else, *I am full of Texas. I am all Texas.*

After these preparatory facts I invite your attention 1st, to our Free Schools; 2nd, our State Institutions; 3rd, our Denominational Schools.

The Free-School System is linked with every step of Texan progress for the last 44 years.

In 1833, a law was passed in what was then called the State of Coahuila and Texas, requiring all Texan children to be trained in Catholic schools, and taught to kneel reverently before the ghostly altars of the Catholic Church. Against this edict, STEPHEN F. AUSTIN and the whole Texas delegation entered their protest and said "we want Free Schools for our children."

One of the causes set forth to the nations of the earth in their "Declaration of Independence" in 1835 was this, "we are not allowed to establish Free Schools for the education of our children."

In 1837, after the battle of San Jacinto, the Texan heroes assembled to lay the foundation of an infant Republic, which like young Hercules had to struggle venomous beasts even in the cradle.

Their wounds were yet bleeding—the smoke and blood had scarcely

died away from the plains of San Jacinto and Goliad, and the emblackened walls of the Alamo; yet these grand men adopted this as a clause of their Constitution: "Inasmuch as the general diffusion of knowledge is essential to the preservation of the rights of the people, it shall be the duty of Congress, as soon as circumstances will allow, to provide by law for a general system of education."

The first Congress of the new Republic set apart four leagues or 17,776 acres of land to each county to establish Free Schools.

By the Constitution of annexation to the United States in 1845, they re-affirmed the grand principle, "that universal education is the only sure foundation of liberty and the rights of the people," and set apart sacredly one-tenth of the State revenues for Free Schools.

In 1854, Texas sold her interest in the Santa-Fe territory to the United States for \$10,000,000, but stipulated that \$2,000,000 should be set apart for Free Schools.

In 1854, Texas having no navigable rivers, and deeming railroads indispensable, resolved to donate 16 sections, or 10,240 acres of land, to all chartered railroad companies for every mile of road they would put in running order. Yet, this was added, "provided they shall survey and set apart at their own expense every alternate section for Public Free Schools."

In 1856, a law was passed appropriating a part of the public domain to improve the navigation of certain streams, yet the same proviso was added, "provided every alternate section be surveyed and set apart for Free Schools."

In 1873, the first Democratic legislature after the war, set apart one-half of all the remaining public domain—of 84,000,000 acres to the same great and long-cherished object, *Free Schools*. And our last Legislature set apart one-fourth of all the State revenues to Free Schools. This sum amounts to about \$1,400,000.

Mr. President, it was quite common forty years ago for the old preachers to preach from this text:

"Walk about Zion, tell the towers thereof, mark well her bulwarks that ye may tell it to the generations." So as an old Texan, and loving Texas with the accumulated love of 30 years, I ask you and all the friends of universal education to "walk around our Jerusalem and mark well our bulwarks."

We have already in our treasury due the school fund from the sale of Santa-Fe territory and the school tax from 1845 to 1861, \$3,500,000. We have also 70,000,000 acres of land, which may be cashed at an early day for at least \$50,000,000.

Sir, I ask you, if the sun in his long journey around this globe ever looked down upon so grand and permanent a fund as Texas has provided for Public Instruction?

It may be asked if the history of Texas is so linked with Free Schools and she has provided so vast a fund, why she has accomplished so little for universal education?

I reply as Mr. JEFFERSON has said, "the first wants of a new country must always be food and shelter, when these are cared for they may seek

after the refined accomplishments of higher civilization." We have been compelled not only to seek after food and shelter, but have been compelled to ward off the Mexican lance and the Indian scalping knife.

The vastness of our territory and sparseness of our population with their migratory, pastoral habits, have also presented almost insuperable barriers. And most of all perchance the fact that most of our people are from Southern States and have never been blessed with Free Schools.

All these things, and others not less powerful, have necessitated this delay. But we firmly believe our whole people will soon be prepared for a grand onward movement.

As State Lecturer on Public Instruction, and agent of the PEABODY fund in Texas, I have canvassed over 100 counties, and travelled over 18,000 miles on this great mission. Last winter that great man and profound educator, Dr. BARNAS SEARS, General Agent of the PEABODY fund, at the venerable age of 74, visited all of our great centres of influence, and by his addresses, wise counsels, and proffered aid, aroused an enthusiasm and hope never known before in Texas.

And we are confident our next Legislature will inaugurate a system of Free Schools which will make our "Lone-Star State" one of the brightest that glitters in the galaxy of American glory.

In conclusion on Free Schools, allow me to say, Mr. President and brother and sister teachers, that in consummating the grand ends contemplated by our heroes and statesmen, we shall need aid from the trained Normal Schools of the older States.

Within the next five years we shall need at least 500 well-trained teachers. And in the name of Texas, I invite them to come from the granite hills of New England, from the lakes of the North, from all the hills and valleys, hamlets and cities of our common land, North and South. Mr. President, excuse me for saying we shall need many of your first-class men and women who are profound and skilled organizers, and who can mould and train a large number of noble teachers now in Texas for the Free-School work.

I repeat we want first-class teachers, and we intend to have them if money and kind invitations will bring them.

But with the blunt frankness of an old Texan, let me tell you there is a class we do not want—"such men as leave their country for their country's good." Texas has had enough of that class to last her till the next Centennial at least. Let me entreat you and all good men, if you know any conscientious, wrong-headed men, mounted too high on the stilts of their own self-importance to get along at home, don't advise them "to go to Texas."

Or if you know any wanting nothing but "neat, light work," or mere birds of passage, who want to go down South and fatten and fly back "to hum," do beg them in my name, and for their sake, and Texas's sake, to stay "to hum," or go to the other place—"go West."

But for the pure, and the prudent, and the wise, who want to make Texas their home in toiling and their graves in dying, we have ample room and a hearty welcome. Though certain domestic animals may lie in the manger and bark, let them bark, that is all they can do or will do.

State Institutions. Texas feels a deep interest in Industrial education, and has already inaugurated her Agricultural and Mechanical College at Bryan. She has erected beautiful and magnificent buildings and secured 2,000 acres adjoining. She has selected a corps of teachers eminently practical, and provided for their salaries. And soon we hope to see this Institution standing abreast with the leading Industrial Colleges in America.

The State University will be located at the next general election by the popular vote of the whole State. Our founders and fathers in 1839 set apart 50 leagues, or 222,220 acres of land, for the endowment of a great University. This will soon be cashed at from \$2.50 to \$4.50 per acre. It is believed that \$750,000 may be realized from the sale of these lands.

The old Texans desire that the Legislature shall add to this sum \$250,000, so as to begin our State University with at least \$1,000,000, in buildings, in library, in apparatus and an endowment.

It will no doubt be gratifying to all the friends of humanity and progress to know that the deepest anxiety is felt and the most ample provisions are made for our colored population. Their school-houses and academies at Waco, and Houston, and Galveston, and San Antonio, are equal, if not superior, to those for the whites.

The State has recently purchased the princely residence of Gen. KIRBY with 2,000 acres attached for their Agricultural and Mechanical College. We are making earnest efforts to provide them Normal Schools for their teachers and Bible Schools for their preachers.

It has been suggested here that too great a permanent fund provided for by the State, is a misfortune, and that it is better to have the most of the money raised by local and municipal tax. This may be so, as local home government is always more vigilant, just, and economical. But, if we find our vast fund is a burden to us or a mill-stone about our necks, we can get rid of it very soon.

We have a class of politicians belonging chiefly to what is known as "the heroic 12th Legislature," and they can gobble up 100,000,000 acres of land quicker than the whale swallowed Jonah.

Denominational Colleges. The various Christian Denominations are laboring with untiring zeal to establish Universities and Female Colleges for Christian but not sectarian education.

The Methodists, who have been the noble pioneers of education and civilization in so many States, have been, and still are, doing a great and good work in Texas.

Rutersville College, founded in 1839, and Fowler Institute, and Mc——— Institute, founded about the same time, attest the zeal of the early Texas Methodists for Christian education. They have flourishing schools at Chappell Hill and Sherman and several other places, but they have concentrated their chief strength on their University at Georgetown and are struggling to raise \$300,000 for its permanent endowment.

The Baptists at an early day, 1845, founded Baylor University and Baylor Female College for Southern Texas, and Waco University in 1861, for Northern Texas.

Waco University has adopted and successfully carries out the system of

co-education for our sons and daughters. And it is believed Waco University will demonstrate the fact that as "it is not good for man to be alone," so it is no better for a boy or girl to be educated alone. More than 4,000 young men and young ladies have already been educated at Waco University and Baylor University and Baylor Female College. In 1875 the Baptists in a great convention at Bremond resolved to raise \$500,000 for university education.

The Presbyterians, many years ago, under the leadership of Rev. Dr. DANIEL BAKER, founded Austin College at Huntsville. This college flourished for several years, but during the calamitous days of 1861-2-3-4 lost its endowment fund, became seriously embarrassed with debt, and has been suspended, but has recently been removed to the city of Sherman. In its new location there are reasonable hopes that it may attain the renown and usefulness so earnestly desired by its founders.

The Cumberland Presbyterians have, within the last ten years, founded Trinity University at Tehuacana Hills. In the zeal and ability of its faculty, the extent of its library, apparatus, and buildings and endowments, Trinity University is surpassed by no Institution in Texas.

In 1852 the Episcopalians established St. Paul's College at Anderson, under the Presidency of Rev. Dr. CHARLES G. GILLET. But after suffering the fate of so many colleges in new States, it has been suspended, and all the energies of that Church are now directed to the support of "the University of the South" in Sewanee Mountains, Tennessee.

The Disciples, or Christians as they prefer to be called, have recently founded a college at Bonham, under the presidency of Rev. CHARLES CARLTON, which promises to meet the wants of that denomination.

The Catholics, with a zeal worthy of IGNATIUS LOYOLA himself, have established a flourishing college at San Antonio, and also one at Galveston; while their High Schools and Convents are found in all our great centres of influence. These all teach, of course, not only secular knowledge, but the peculiar doctrines of that sect. There are quite a number of excellent academies, high schools, and colleges, owned and controlled by individuals and local communities, doing immense service to the cause of education. Time and space, however, forbid their enumeration here. I have thus briefly discharged the duty assigned me of discussing the educational interests of Texas. And allow me, Mr. President, to thank you and this noble body of American educators for hearing me with such patience and profound attention on a question so dear to every Texan. We accept this as another indication of the returning and growing sympathy and love which should ever bind this great nation in one brotherhood.

And it is the earnest prayer of every true Texan heart that this mighty chain of sympathy and love may grow stronger and brighter as long as the flowers bloom on our beautiful prairies or the waves of the Gulf of Mexico thunder on our shores.

DISCUSSION.

The foregoing paper and The Educational Wants of the South were discussed by Hon. J. P. WICKERSHAM, of Pennsylvania; Dr. JOHN HANCOCK,

of Ohio; Hon. A. S. WILLIS, of Kentucky; Hon. H. A. M. HENDERSON, of Kentucky; Prof. J. J. RUCKER, of Kentucky; Dr. CHASE, of Kentucky; J. M. FISH, Arkansas; Prof. J. M. HALSELL, of Kentucky; and J. M. CORBIN, of Arkansas.

Mr. WICKERSHAM said it is well known that he lives north of Mason and Dixon's line, and he has enjoyed no special opportunities for informing himself in regard to the condition of Education in that part of the Union. The President of the Association was sometimes facetious, and he might have appointed him to open the discussion for the fun of the thing. But he might have been in earnest and desired to fill the place with a Northern man known to sympathize with the educational work now going on in the South. If so, he was free to say that no one felt more interest in that work, or would do more to aid it than himself. The people of the South—the whole people of the South—must be educated in order to keep their great country free, and make it prosperous and happy. His opportunities had been too few to enable him to speak of the Educational wants of the South from his own observations; but what he had to say would be based mainly upon the reports of school officers in the South, educational journals published there, and conferences and correspondence with Southern men. One thing is clear that everywhere, in all the States—there are indications of improvement. A better public sentiment in regard to systems of popular education is being formed, and men high in social and political influence are becoming more and more outspoken in favor of the education of the people. The facts just presented by the gentleman from Texas look unmistakably in this direction, and so do those mentioned from time to time on this floor by gentlemen from other Southern States. The progress may be slow, but it will be sure; and our Southern friends must work away and wait in patience.

But what are the Educational wants of the South, as stated by Southern men?

You want better school-houses. So do we want better school-houses at the North. Yours may not be so numerous, or so good as ours; but we have been thirty, fifty, a hundred years in building them. You have just begun in earnest, and a school system is not built up in a month or a year. I know you have many good school-houses, next year you will have more, and the next—until you rival the best of ours.

You want better teachers. This want is also felt in all States and countries. It can be supplied only by the establishment of Teachers' Seminaries or Normal Schools. You have begun this work. Let it go on. Let training schools and normal schools be founded one by one, and your teachers will be gradually lifted up to a higher level and new life will be infused into the whole work of education.

Southern educators complain that the work of supervision is incomplete. Your laws in this respect are quite as good as those of the North. It is true that a State system of public instruction requires a general officer at its head, with subordinates in each county and subdivision of a county. We must have in the end, in every State in this country, three grades of *school inspectors or superintendents*—in the township, in the county, and

in the State. To provide these officers will be good economy. Teaching is becoming too much of a science to be directed by any but experts. Everywhere, in all countries, the efficiency of systems of schools may be measured by the frequency and thoroughness with which they are inspected. But we must have patience for some years with our Legislatures on this question.

Complaint comes from the South, too, on the question of non-attendance at school. And with reason, for if I read your statistics aright, not more than one-half, perhaps not more than one-third of the children of school age in the South attend the public schools in any one year. This fact has an ugly look, but a change for the better is taking place; and as your country fills up and becomes more prosperous this change will be more rapid. But look to the children out of school, I beg you, for universal suffrage will prove a curse unless accompanied by universal education.

You say your financial affairs have been disordered, and you are in need of money to carry on the work of education. Time will cure this evil. It is now in process of cure. The hand of industry will in the coming years bless your fruitful country with plenty, and your children need not long lack on that account for an education, high or low. Meantime, I would that Congress should grant you aid. We have just voted that the proceeds of the public lands should be set apart for educational purposes. For one I am willing that for some years the South shall have all the money coming in this way,—aye, I would be willing were it ten times as much. Whatever makes you strong strengthens us.

But let me caution you against relying mainly upon funds coming through the hands of the State or the General Government to carry on the work of education. A fortune is, many times, the ruin of a man. We are apt to value slightly that which comes easy. We set most store upon what we work and pay for. The levying and collecting of local taxes for school purposes turns the attention of the people to the schools, and induces them to interest themselves in their management. It awakens discussion and promotes progress. The best touchstone of a right public sentiment respecting education is a willingness on the part of the people to put their hands in their own pockets and take out the money necessary to make liberal provision not only for their own children but for all the children in the community. Possibly, there are towns, counties, or States in the South that at this time cannot bear the application of such a test; but let the drift of the work be in this direction and in the end there can be no mistake as to the result.

You need, as we do, patience, for the time when education shall be universal seems long in coming; but, brothers, be of good courage, for the victory cannot be uncertain. The republic must either educate or die.

Mr. HANCOCK said: It is not my purpose to detain the audience by any extended remarks on the educational wants of the South. I prefer to leave that duty to educators much better acquainted with those wants than myself. It is scarcely necessary for one who has devoted so many years to the cause of general education to assure the educators of the South of his profound sympathies in the educational difficulties under which they may be laboring from local or other causes. I feel sure the

educators of the North have no disposition to dogmatize in the least, in indicating the means that they may deem best adapted to supply the educational wants of the South. We desire to enter into friendly counsel with Southern educators on the educational questions that may grow out of the present situation of affairs in that section. Culture ought to make men liberal, and is bounded by no political lines. We are ready to enter into a general rivalry with our brethren of the South in arousing the enthusiasm of the whole people in the cause in which the whole people has so vital an interest. I now give way in order that we may hear from the representative educators of the South.

Dr. GEORGE A. CHASE, of Louisville, Ky., contended that the professors and presidents engaged in college work in Kentucky were generally interested in the success of common schools. The State Teachers' Association had been greatly dependent for its usefulness and efficiency upon the efforts of the college and private school teachers. He believed there was more union of effort here in this respect than where the common-school system has been more fully developed and strengthened. But he did not rise merely to endeavor to modify the sentiments of the last speaker, but to convey some information to the educators of the North in regard to the progress made in Louisville in the education of the colored children.

He stated that about sixty-five thousand dollars had been expended here in the building of handsome public school buildings for them; that the schools are managed by the white board of trustees, through the agency of an advisory board of colored visitors; that they are taught by competent colored teachers who have obtained their certificates as teachers from the same board of examiners that examine the white teachers; that the pupils study the same course of study, using the same text-books, and that they are examined upon the same questions, and in the same manner as the white children.

He then stated, as a fact, that, as the result of the examination of the first grade of the public schools—both white and colored—seventy-four per cent of the colored children passed, while but forty-one of the white pupils reached the same result—or, in other words, fifty-nine per cent of white pupils failed against but twenty-six of the colored. He could explain this by giving a statement of circumstances, did time and place permit, so that the conclusion might not be drawn by the audience favorable to the superiority of the colored race. He merely brought forward the fact as an evidence of the marked attention to the education of the colored race very creditable to Kentucky.

J. M. CORBIN, of Little Rock, Ark., said he did not believe the vital interest in the question had been touched upon by the speakers in the discussion. He understood that the purpose of the topic was the consideration of some method of benefiting the rural districts of the South by the comprehensive school systems of the North.

The following persons announced their intention of becoming Life Members: *Hon. J. H. SMART*, of Ind., *LOUIS SOLDAN*, of Mo., *J. M. HARLEY*, of Ind. Terr'y, *Hon. CALEB MILLS*, of Ind., *J. M. FISH*, of Ark., *M. B.*

FRANKLIN, of Texas, Dr. R. C. BURLESON, of Texas, Mrs. L. L. MONTSEERAT, of Ky., Miss ANNIE F. RALFUS, of Ky., and W. H. BARTHOLOMEW, of Ky. T. MARCELLUS MARSHALL, of W. Va., announced his intention of becoming a Life Director. The teachers of Louisville donated \$60 to the funds of the Association, and the State Teachers' Association of Ky. donated \$15 to the same fund.

Adjourned to meet at 8 P. M.

EVENING SESSION, AUG. 15, 1877.

The Association was called to order at 8 P. M.

Hon. GEO. W. HILL, State Sup't of Arkansas, was introduced and read a paper entitled

EDUCATED MIND—ITS MISSION AND RESPONSIBILITY.

[This paper was not furnished for publication.]

The President announced the following names as a Committee of 15 to memorialize Congress in behalf of the Bureau of Education :

WM. T. HARRIS, Mo., W. F. PHELPS, Wis., J. L. PICKARD, Ill., A. J. RICKOFF, O., J. B. BOWMAN, Ky., EDWARD BROOKS, Pa., W. H. RUFFNER, Va., B. G. NORTHRUP, Conn., T. W. BICKNELL, Mass., S. M. ETTER, Ill., J. H. SMART, Ind., LEON TROUSDALE, Tenn., S. R. THOMPSON, Neb., R. C. BURLESON, Texas.

The Committee on Resolutions reported as follows, and the resolutions were adopted :

Your Committee offer the following resolutions of thanks for adoption by the Association :

1. Thanks to the lines of Steamboats and Railroads which have carried teachers to this meeting at reduced rates, and to the Hotels for liberal reductions from their usual terms.

2. Thanks to the Press for the full and accurate reports furnished the public of the proceedings of the Association.

3. Thanks to the Board of Education of Louisville for the free provision of such an elegant and convenient place for our meetings.

4. Thanks to the Kentucky Teachers' Association and to the Louisville Teachers' Association for the courtesies extended to our members.

5. We would express our special obligations to the Hon. H. A. M HENDERSON, State Superintendent of Instruction for Kentucky, and to Prof. W. H. BARTHOLOMEW, of Louisville, for their untiring efforts to make the meeting of the Association what it has been, one of the most pleasant and profitable it has ever held.

6. Thanks to the Hon. A. M. NEWELL, the retiring President of the Association, for the ability, impartiality, and courtesy with which he has presided over its deliberations.

J. L. PICKARD,
J. HANCOCK,
J. D. RUNKLE,
Committee on Resolutions.

The Committee also offered the following resolutions, but no motion for their adoption was made.

Having examined carefully the deliverances of this Association upon matters discussed at its several annual meetings, and desiring to avoid repetition of its well-known opinions, your Committee on Resolutions has thought best to confine its attention to the two subjects made prominent in the deliberations of the present session :

1. *The Relations of Education to Labor.*

2. *The Interrelations of the Several Departments of Educational Work.*

and the following report is respectfully submitted :

WHEREAS, There is a strong and growing public sentiment, which has been intensified by recent events, that the elements of *Manual Education* should become an integral part of our Public-School system, therefore :

Resolved, That in the judgment of this Association the Russian system of Mechanic Art Education, as presented by President RUNKLE, is the one which, on account of its thoroughly-educational and disciplinary character, and its entire harmony with the methods of instruction in other subjects of study, especially adapts it for this purpose.

Resolved, That this system of Manual Education is hereby earnestly recommended to the attention of educators and legislators in all parts of the country, and particularly in all centres of large population.

WHEREAS, The rapidly-changing current of industrial life in this country brings into prominence education in the Arts and Sciences and in their practical applications to the pursuits of men—

Resolved, That in the judgment of this Association the Colleges should admit to all their courses of study, *Classical* as well as *Scientific* pupils from the Public Schools without an examination in the Greek language, accepting in lieu thereof a better preparation in the English language and such increase beyond the present acquirements in the Latin language as may be an equivalent to the Greek in matter of linguistic culture.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON DECEASED MEMBERS.

1st, *Resolved*, That in the death of Hon. JOHN A. NORRIS, late State School Commissioner of Common Schools of Ohio, and a life member of this Association, and in the death of Hon. WARREN JOHNSON, late Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Maine, it has lost two valuable members, the teachers' profession able and successful educators, and the country useful citizens.

2nd, *Resolved*, That the National Association extend to the families of the deceased their sympathy and condolence, and further

3rd, *Resolved*, That copies of these resolutions be forwarded by the Secretary of the General Association to the bereaved and sorely-afflicted families.

With the consent of the Association, your Committee begs leave to append to the above resolutions a brief sketch of the lives of the deceased to be published with the proceedings.

R. W. STEVENSON,
R. D. SHANNON,
Committee.

The President's Address, or more particularly the relation of Education to Labor, was discussed by Dr. TAPPAN, Dr. BUCHANAN, Dr. RUNKLE, Gen. CARRINGTON, STEVENS of Louisville, and Prof. BROWN.

The following members agreed to take the number of copies of the Proceedings of the Association for 1877, following their names: M. A. NEWELL, 12 copies; WM. F. PHELPS, 12 copies; S. H. WHITE, 20 copies; J. P. WICKERSHAM, 50 copies.

Adjourned.

Papers Omitted in the Preceding Pages.

THE RELATION OF THE PREPARATORY OR GRAMMAR SCHOOL TO COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY.

BY PROF. W. R. WEBB, OF CULLEOKA, TENN.

[This paper was not received in time for its publication in its proper place.]

The preparatory or High School in America, the Grammar School in England, and the Gymnasium of Germany, occupy the same relative position to the Colleges or Universities of their respective countries. In connection with a College it is called the preparatory or sub-college department. In the best system of education its curriculum comprises, in mathematics, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, and trigonometry, with its application to navigation and surveying; in Latin, grammar, reader, Cæsar, Sallust, Ovid, Virgil, prose composition, as included in Bingham's or Harkness's Grammar and Arnold's Composition, through first part, or *their equivalent*, in Greek, grammar, four books of Xenophon's Anabasis and two in Herodotus, and Jones's or Arnold's Greek Prose Composition, or *their equivalent*.

A good parallel course in English will of course be included. The work of this school is a thorough drill in the forms and principles of language, and in the formulæ and principles of mathematics, which drill simply means the constant repetition of those forms and principles and their repeated application. To enter a preparatory school a boy should be familiar with the four fundamental rules of arithmetic, and should read fluently. It is in its discipline and course of study intended for *boys*. A college or university with a more extended course in these, together with other studies, takes up the work where the preparatory school leaves it, and continues it. Its course of study and discipline are adapted to *men*. The purpose of this paper is to discuss their relation, whether they should be combined under one administration and management, or should be entirely disconnected.

The true principle, it seems to me, is the concentration of university work with a diffusion of preparatory work.

The expense necessarily incident to a University so extended in its course as to impart liberal culture, with its buildings, its gymnasiums, its laboratories, its philosophical and chemical apparatus, its observatories and astronomical instruments, its libraries and museums of natural history, its geological and mineralogical cabinets, and last, the most expensive and most important, its corps of learned professors, makes a large endowment an indispensable prerequisite. This necessarily involves concentration. *The expense of a University absolutely precludes the possibility of having one in every county, much less in every community.*

Now taking it for granted that it promotes the interest of the individual student in preparatory work to be connected with the sub-college department, remembering that in education, as in government, that system is best which brings the greatest good to the greatest number, is the cause of education at large subserved by opening to him the doors of the College and University?

In every organization of men, lodges, societies, associations, clubs, ecclesiastical and political assemblies, there are always a few men who constitute the nucleus around which the organization clusters, the centre of life, the heart, so to speak, of the body, from which proceeds the vital influence that gives energy and efficiency to the entire assembly and without which it would be a useless and lifeless organization. They are known as the working or leading members. So it is in a school. In almost every community there are a few energetic, ambitious spirits, who have an elevated ideal standard of excellence, and who by their diligence are daily approximating that standard, and whose thirst for knowledge is increased by every draught, and whose influence and energy impart life and vigor to the teacher and school.

Now if it promotes the interest of the individual to join the preparatory department of a College, these are the very persons who will avail themselves of that privilege. Then the life-giving power imparted by the leading spirits who constitute this nucleus is gone, and the school is abandoned or drags out a sickly and profitless existence. In all probability, the very community that contributed most liberally to the cause of general education by endowing the University, which endowment enabled it to compete advantageously with their own school, is the very community called upon to suffer by such competition. They find their own school, with its morale, its *esprit de corps* gone, and that they themselves provided the boomerang which destroyed their own educational life.

If it brings the greatest good to the greatest number, that the few have the highest culture and the very large majority be thereby totally or almost totally deprived of education, then, indeed this is the best system. To preserve the *esprit de corps* of the schools and keep up a healthy interest in them is surely the right method to bring fair opportunities to both the few and the many, and this method in no way diminishes the number who have the finest opportunity for the best educational advantages; while on the contrary, by combining the preparatory schools and the college, the schools are decapitated and the number who have fair opportunities materially decreased.

This life-giving power is lost to the school, is it added to the college? The preparatory department being subordinate, the college is the object of absorbing interest with faculty, students, and citizens. College ideas, college notions, college phrases, college ways, prevail. The ambitious "prep" as, in college parlance, he is called, naturally desires to associate with the students of that department which receives so much deference from all, and he associates with the worst elements of the college, and for the following very obvious reason. Those enthusiastic students, whose influence gives tone in morals and scholarship to the institution are in their rooms at work. They give but little time to social enjoyment, and

very naturally devote that time to those who are congenial by reason of age and scholarly attainments. They are seldom seen by the public, and then but for a few moments at a time. They are not acquainted with students of the preparatory department. The worst elements of the college, cut off from the association of the better class of students, because they are the worst, are the public characters, who are seeking, at all times, for associates. The institution is measured and its standard of excellence in scholarship and morals is judged by the unthinking multitude from these specimens who are most frequently and most prominently on exhibition. Among the unthinking we class the boys of the preparatory department. They are flattered by being associated with college boys, who seem, in their youthful imagination, to be separated from them by an infinite distance, and who are to them oracles of the profoundest wisdom. Why not? Do not the professors exhibit for the *college* students a profound respect? The unsuspecting and unsophisticated youth soon catches the flippant ways of his comrades, and out-Herods Herod, in order to win the good opinion of his admired companions.

The model student of the village school too often returns from college to disappoint the expectation of friends and to damage, in their estimation, and in the estimation of others, college education, for it is always said that he was in college, not that he was in a school in connection with a college.

Boys go to school; young men go to college. Young men govern themselves—boys need supervision, restraint, compulsion. The discipline adapted to one is not adapted to the other. In school the teacher stands in *loco parentis*, addresses his pupils by their given names, and adopts such a code of laws as you would find in any well-regulated family. In college the professor stands in *loco magistratus*, addresses the young men by their surnames, with Mr. prefixed, and adopts such a code of laws as will be found in a well-governed State. While character is in its formative state it is difficult to determine the relative value of discipline and scholarship. While there can be good discipline and inferior scholarship, there can not be inferior discipline and good scholarship. Discipline is then a necessity for boys. Colleges take but slight supervision over their students when off of recitation, and lay no restraints upon them with reference to absence from their premises—not even at night. The students are never called to account for failure in their lessons, and rarely for failure to attend recitation. They are stimulated to their work only by a sense of duty, a desire to excel, and by the prospective examination and grading which are far in the remote future. They select their own boarding-houses and change them at will. When a young man is ready to enter college, he is a young man; his parents, his companions treat him as a young man, and Professors in college must likewise treat him as a young man. There is a date when he must assume the *toga virilis*, the responsibilities of manhood, and why not upon his entrance into college? The law draws a line between his majority and minority, a principle perfectly arbitrary, as there are many on each side of the line that ought to be on the other. No safer line, it seems to me, could be adopted than the beginning of a college course, where the standard is an elevated one, and rigidly adhered to.

Boys ready to begin a preparatory course are too tender in age to be

allowed such large liberties. They need supervision in school and out of school. They must be *required* to perform their tasks, as they are not old enough to know what is best for them, and at that age they cannot always be sufficiently stimulated by a sense of duty or a desire for excellence. They must often be detained as delinquents, admonished for shortcomings and misdeeds. Penalties, too, must be inflicted for infraction of law or for omission of duty. It is not necessary that they be severe, but that they be certain. In college the only penalties are reproof and dismissal. In school boys should not be dismissed until after moral suasion and reproof, the virtue of restraints and severer punishments have been exhausted. When these two classes are combined under college discipline, the boys generally suffer in morals and scholarship, and being *treated as men*, they become fearfully afflicted with an undue sense of self-importance, a disease of the brain, an enlargement of the head, that prevails especially in institutions of this character. To see a venerable professor, whose head is silvered o'er with the frosts of many winters, address a little boy as Mr. and ask him to please spell *baker*, or if he will be kind enough to decline *penna*, is a picture too ludicrous to be dwelt upon in the presence of this learned body, and should be reserved for Harper's Weekly.

On the other hand should these classes be combined under discipline adapted to boys, the college students are robbed of that liberty to which they are justly entitled by their attainments and maturity of character. As a fact young men would not submit to such restraint, and it is not desirable that they should. Under such a system, individuality of character, self-respect, and self-reliance would not be sufficiently well developed. Is it possible for the two kinds of discipline, one adapted to boys and the other to young men, to be administered in the same institution and by the same set of officers? This would beget so much dissatisfaction and would produce such longing on the part of the boys for the liberties which they see others enjoy, that those unpleasant issues about *rights* which are deprecated by all administrators of discipline would inevitably occur frequently and present many questions of doubtful and difficult solution. Hesitation would result and discipline cease to be vigorous. When there is no longer a vigorous administration of law, discipline ceases to be a valuable element in the formation of character. I know of no compromise between these two systems that would produce the best results for either class.

My experience has been that the same men are not usually successful in managing both classes. Those who have succeeded with the first have failed utterly with the second, and *vice versa*.

Not only do they fail in discipline; they fail in that particular in which teachers accomplish their greatest good; they fail to create a thirst for knowledge—to excite enthusiasm in their younger students. The reason is obvious: they are overworked and feel no enthusiasm themselves. Taking the curriculum I have given for a preparatory school and combining with it an extended and thorough college course, and you make, at the lowest possible estimate, seven hours' work per day, provided a class is formed each year and one hour per day is devoted to each class. This does not constitute, by any means, the entire work. The written exercises, which form a very considerable part of a student's duty, are to be cor-

rected, and the professor must make preparation for his classes. This is more work than any one man can perform. Some of it must be slurred over. The preparatory being subordinate, that department suffers. The professor comes overworked and tired. He regards the recitation as a bore—he takes no interest in it—the class soon loses its *esprit de corps*, if any had ever been created, and its life and energy go with it. In many instances the boys lose interest to the extent of giving up their studies. They return home as representatives of college culture, though from the lower classes of the preparatory department, and by their want of scholarship and success bring college culture into disrepute among their acquaintances. To obviate the difficulty of overwork, many institutions appoint advanced students, who feel no responsibility for the success of either the students or the college, to take charge of these classes. The demoralizing effect of this course to all thinking people is too obvious to need discussion. Tutors and adjunct professors are tried as a remedy, on the principle that by division of labor the greatest perfection is attained. The whole arrangement is radically wrong in its conception and organization. The proximity of the college, with its senior professors and its overshadowing influence, precludes the possibility of begetting that interest, that enthusiasm in the sub-college, which gives life and vigor sufficient for pre-eminent success.

The best evidence of this is, that in catalogues of such institutions as attempt to combine both the school and the college, you frequently find that the sub-college department has just been reorganized, and new changes have been made, &c., &c., &c., to obviate the usual objections to it and meet the demands upon it. This itself shows the dissatisfaction of the authorities with that department. To develop preparatory schools to the highest degree of excellence every inducement to excellence must be presented to the teacher. The college is the only arena upon which to display specimens of his handiwork. Every department of human labor takes a pride in expositions of the best results of its skill, and the school is no exception to this rule. The teacher, as an artist, desires to bring before the public specimens of his work. The college is the arena for such exposition, or otherwise his merits must be measured by the opinion of his pupils, who oftentimes do not appreciate his labors until long after his working days are over, and he fails in the prime of his manhood to reap the rewards of his fidelity. Frequently the skilful, conscientious teacher goes to his last resting-place feeling that his life was a failure. What inducement has he to enter this arena when the judges in the case are themselves competitors with him? It is to the interest of the college that boys prepared there should reap the honors, but the judge who awards the honors is not impartial. He passes judgment upon his own work.

“When self the wavering balance shakes
It is rarely right adjusted.”

The temptation is to give preference for his own work, but the temptation should be removed, and an impartial tribunal established to decide the merits of competing schools. As long as the sub-college is in existence, the teachers of private schools feel that if they do first-class work it will

not be recognized. In other words, there is a monopoly that paralyzes, rather than stimulates enterprise.

A very strong argument in behalf of the principle of concentration of university work with a diffusion of preparatory work is that those countries which have acquired most reputation by their educational institutions, and have accumulated most experience through centuries of successful educational enterprises, act upon this principle. Wherever sufficient capital is accumulated for school purposes, the university cuts off its preparatory department and elevates the standard of scholarship necessary for admission into its lowest class. Our public schools in the cities and large towns have acted upon this principle, and they have failed to secure the patronage of educated people wherever they have failed to grade properly their schools.

What must those colleges do that depend for the salaries of their professors almost solely upon the income from tuition fees, and can not afford to cut off any paying patronage? If from the arguments deduced and from the accumulated experience of men, the cause of education is subserved by disconnecting the school and the college, let such an institution choose between being a college or a school, and let it live or die on the principle of the survival of the fittest. The interest of a few professors and one locality must yield to the great cause of education at large.

As the medical profession attempt so to educate the people in regard to the possibilities and limits of the science of medicine, that they will no longer be influenced by those quacks who pretend to accomplish impossibilities, and as ministers of the Gospel attempt so to educate the people in Bible doctrines that they will not be led astray by the heterodox, who teach damnable heresies, so should teachers of preparatory schools, and professors of real colleges attempt by private conversation and public speeches to beget such a healthy public sentiment in educational matters as will force institutions of learning to conform to those methods and those standards which the experience of mankind has shown to be indispensable to the attainment of the best results in education.

The teacher's authority is delegated by the parent, and he stands in the place of a parent; hence his is necessarily a family government, which by divine appointment is a monarchy.

The government of boys should never be invested in a faculty and penalties inflicted by a majority vote. The boys soon find which one of the faculty is in favor of the boys, as they term it, and, when it becomes necessary to formulate charges, they manifest, in annoying, yet in intangible ways, their preferences and their dislikes. The temptation too to a member of the faculty to shirk responsible duties, and to pass unnoticed violations of law and good order, is oftentimes too great for poor human nature. His sensitive spirit shrinks from the criticism of the boys for reporting, and he becomes with them temporarily a sort of hero, because he fails to have them summoned before the faculty for misdemeanors. The popularity, it is true, won in this way is at the expense of their respect, and want of respect passes into contempt—yet it is human nature to temporize, although in school discipline temporizing is fatal. That man who exacts good deportment and good scholarship is the real hero among

his pupils. His popularity is based upon a foundation both sure and permanent, success in his profession.

For this family government the number of pupils is necessarily limited—otherwise the one-man power is an impossibility. Just as in families some men have the capacity to govern larger ones than others; so to fix upon a definite number of pupils for the school is impossible. The number must be proportioned to the teacher's ability.

To crowd great multitudes of children together and require of them that perfect order which is described by its advocates by the term clock-work, and to require of them to sit at their desks, when they can do better work under a tree, to exact of every one at the same time the same motions, is not like a family, nor is it natural, nor does it tend to develop those powers of the mind which distinguish rather than reduce to a "contemptible dead level."

When large multitudes of boys attend school in the same building, it is necessary to have that government which is described as clock-work, which I take to mean that when the teacher makes a big tic, all the scholars make a little tic. In these large assemblies of boys, where a boy is conscious that his individual peculiarities are entirely overlooked and that restraints are imposed upon him, that would not be necessary but for the bad character of his desk-mate, when he becomes conscious that the individual is swallowed up in the multitude, he loses that gentleness of nature, that modesty of spirit, that refinement of soul, which is so earnestly commended by ST. PAUL, and which is so attractive in the family. Besides he loses that sense of individual responsibility which is the most important factor in the formation of good character both mental and moral. DEAN ALFORD for many years taught a small school and the proportion of his pupils who have distinguished themselves before the English people has been a subject of remark in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*.

The college or university is composed of men and governed upon the principles that underlie the government of a well-regulated State. The one-man power here is the most objectionable of all modes of government. Even in countries which, politically, are monarchies, the government of their colleges and universities is vested in trustees and a faculty. As in political economy, the number of people that can be well included under the same form of government has never been definitely determined, so the number of men that may successfully attend a university admits of indefinite expansion. The truth is that with that maturity of character and that scholarship which fit a man to attend a university, the larger the number the greater the benefit derived. "As iron sharpeneth iron, so the face of man sharpeneth the face of his friend." From a different standpoint, then, the standpoint of numbers, I have arrived at the principle with which I set out, that it is best for the public to have a concentration of university work, and best for the public to have a diffusion of preparatory work.

The preparatory department of many colleges is fastened upon them by the very conditions of their life and growth, and to ask them to give it up is to ask them, as they think, to surrender their life. But what is the duty of a university that has stepped Minerva-like into the ranks, fully equipped

by the endowment of some munificent founder? That a grave responsibility rests upon such an institution, none will deny; that it should have the boldness to *lead* in the right direction and not be led by the demands of the unknowing, is a just expectation of the friends of education. In the name of the toiling tutors of our country, we demand that such an institution shall establish a standard, let it be high or low, according to conditions and surroundings; but let it be a standard, and let all who do not reach its requirements be rigidly excluded. Immediately a new life is infused into the teachers of the land, a new educating lever is placed in their hands, and in a few years they will more than compensate her for the temporary sacrifice of numbers. Her influence is not confined to the hundred that enter their names upon her roll and call her Alma Mater; but she has many hundreds of foster-children who perhaps never more than hear her name. Sound this in the ear of your financial trustee, who divides the expenses of the college by the number of matriculates and cries whence this waste and extravagance.

The amount spent should reach a greater number. Whisper it in the ear of your sympathetic clerical trustee, who says the instruction of this institution shall not be the privilege of the few, but the boon of the many.

Let the higher institutions of learning foster the preparatory schools, not compete with them. Let them encourage the teacher by exhibiting an appreciation of his labors. If these institutions have prestige for scholarship, they are almost wholly indebted for their elevated standard to the conscientious teacher of the subordinate school. When a young man in college competes successfully for the honors, his scholarship and character represent years of watchfulness and toil on the part of the teacher. When his name is published as the successful competitor, why not, too, mention the name of the school to which he is indebted for his training and upon whose labor is based the elevated standard of the university?

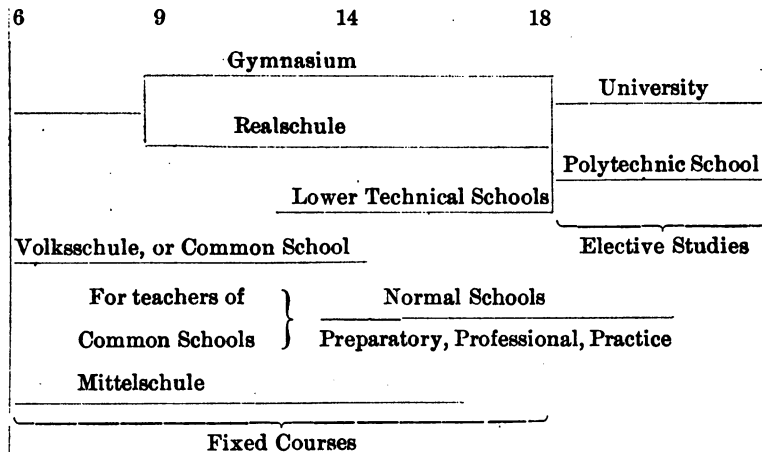
The military chieftain has his triumphal procession and his laurels; the teacher, who oftentimes exhibits more firmness, persistence, strategy, more gallantry, more real heroism, more genius in his conflict with ignorance and petulance, simply asks recognition at the hands of those who reap the rewards of his victory. When the college at Princeton announced that it would publish the names of the schools from which their best scholars came, the announcement sent a thrill of joy across intervening States to the heart of a teacher in an inland village, who for more than a quarter of a century had labored earnestly in the school-room and who was a genius in his profession. He had never hoped to have his name so much as mentioned at that institution of learning. He directed the minds of his pupils to the merits of this college, and he had the gratification to see his name announced in their catalogue in connection with more than one young man who was the best scholar in his class. This enabled him at once to take front rank as a teacher, and it is scarcely necessary to add that he was diligent in distributing their catalogues among the educated of his State, thereby increasing his own patronage and theirs. The principle of correlating successful schools and granting scholarships to them—established by that noblest of fraternal benefactions, Vanderbilt University—has infused new life and new vigor into the schools

of many States. I know that the best teachers of my acquaintance, regardless of denominational ties, are struggling to have their work approved at that University that they may be awarded that distinction. The tendency of all this is toward the concentration of the University; but toward the diffusion of the schools.

DISCUSSION.

Prof. R. B. WARDER, of the University of Cincinnati, then opened the discussion with some illustrations drawn from German schools. He said:

In no country can the true relations of the preparatory or grammar school to the College and University be more beautifully illustrated by practical examples than in the German States. The German States, I say, for while our Teutonic friends are now proud of their united empire, their present system of schools, in many of its leading features, is the outgrowth of a wholesome educational rivalry among the several States of the former Confederation.



The diagram represents several parallel courses of study, such as are pursued in nearly all parts of Germany; though varying in some particulars, in the several States. The numbers represent that which may be regarded as the *normal minimum age* for several important periods of the schoolboy's life; some boys of good abilities and industry will reach the several stages of their education at the ages indicated, though many will be some years older. One half of a centimetre, of the horizontal scale, represents one year of school life.

The Gymnasium represents the old and well-grounded theory of *thorough classical training* as one of the best means of literary culture and mental discipline. It receives boys at the age of nine years, (who have already received elementary instruction,) and gives them a nine years'

course. Its educational characters may best be illustrated in the country by supposing a college, having a fixed classical curriculum of four years, united with a preparatory department or academy, having a five years' course. Instruction in Latin occupies about one-third of the time during the whole course; while Greek is taught seven years. While the gymnasias differ in some details (such as embracing a ten years' course in Wirttemberg) there is a regularity and uniformity in general methods and principles, which are very surprising to one who is more familiar with American Colleges. So complete and appropriate is the training believed to be, that the certificate of graduation from almost any German gymnasium, is the passport to almost any of their Universities or Polytechnic Schools. How delightful it would be, in this country, were it possible to organize a system of High Schools, or Academies, (call them what you please) in which the instruction should be so thorough and complete, that the graduate might be admitted to any college without further examination!

The German University, however, cannot well be compared to the average American College. Our conception will be more nearly correct, if we imagine an institution designed exclusively for *post-graduate* courses, in which hundreds of students receive instruction in nearly all departments of literature and science, as well as in professional schools of theology, jurisprudence, and medicine. A normal department for the training of gymnasial professors is also included. The University studies are wholly elective, not only for the student but also for the Professor. The discipline is designed for men just arriving at the duties of citizenship; while the gymnasial pupil is scarcely allowed to feel that he has outgrown his boyhood till his certificate of graduation is in his hand. So marked is the difference, indeed, that the student on emerging from the restraints of gymnasial walls and tutors, and entering the freedom of University life, often loses one semester in learning to command himself. From three to five years study is generally required for a degree.

The "Realschule,"* in its present form, is the outgrowth of this century; and it lacks the fixed character of the Gymnasium, though representing nearly the same period of school life. Greek is omitted, the amount of Latin is diminished, and more time is devoted to modern languages, drawing, mathematics, and the elements of science. As compared with the gymnasium, the Realschule holds an inferior place in public estimation; yet the competition, in the German mind, between these two education-ideas, presents some features of great interest. The graduate of the Realschule is admitted to the University, for the pursuit of scientific studies, as candidate for the degree of Ph. D.; but only the gymnasial graduate, with his fuller drill in Latin and Greek, is supposed to have his powers of thought sufficiently developed to enter a professional Faculty, and prepare himself for the pulpit, the bar, or the lancet.

* The German term is here retained, because there is no English equivalent, to express precisely the same organization as that implied in the original word. The same may be said of the words *Volkschule*, *Mittelschule*, &c. Since these are German nouns, not yet adopted in our own language, they must be written with capital initials.

The Polytechnic School is designed to instruct those who are to become Civil and Mechanical Engineers, Architects, Chemical Manufacturers, &c. The conditions for admission are not uniform, but the candidate is usually expected to have pursued as long a course of preliminary study as for the University, and the gymnasial training is often preferred. Certain technical schools of lower grade are recognized as preparatory to the Polytechnic School; but in these also the studies are obligatory; the elective system with the accompanying sort of discipline is reserved for the highest school. In Bavaria, the "Gewerbeschule," with its fixed course of three years, the "Industrieschule," with three parallel courses of two years each, and the "Polytechnicum," with its studies all elective, provide a well-graded course of technical instruction.

The "Volksschule" furnishes instruction for both sexes, from the age of 6 to 13 or 14. Attendance at these schools (sometimes also at the *continuation schools* or "Fortbildungsschulen" on holidays and evenings till the age of 16) is required of all who do not receive instruction elsewhere. This is the least amount of schooling that the State permits a citizen to receive. While this is the minimum, every encouragement is offered to the citizen to afford himself a more liberal training; and the military system is a very efficient means toward this end. Every able-bodied man is compelled to serve three years as a common soldier, unless he earns the privilege of one year's volunteer service by reaching a certain standard of general education. The requirements for this privilege represent about seven years of the gymnasium or Realschule; hence many a student of these schools would drop out just two years before his time for completing the course. The lower classes would often be too full, the upper classes too small. The German, moreover, rejects in toto, the doctrine that "what is best for the pupil who continues at school is best also for the pupil who leaves it." If, therefore, the boy passes through seven classes of the gymnasium or Realschule, though he may gain the coveted exemption from two years of military duty, he suffers great loss from the want of the remaining two years of school life. A shorter course may be adjusted to give a more symmetrical, well-rounded education, than a fraction cut off from the gymnasial course. The Mittelschule of the diagram represents the various classes of schools which are designed to meet this particular want, to supply more than can be found in the Volksschule, but less than the full course of Gymnasium or Realschule.

Special training is required of those who desire to become teachers. The diagram represents the instruction in Bavaria for teachers of the common schools. This embraces three stages. The preparatory school, with three years' course, takes the child on leaving the common school or "Volksschule." The Normal Seminary follows immediately with its two years' course of general and professional instruction; in completing this course, the young man is only "expectant for teaching service," and must undergo a practical training for one or two years before he is entitled to the rank or salary of assistant teacher.

The real purpose of the diagram here given is to illustrate a *system* of schools, such as can nowhere be found in this country. Such a system cannot be grafted on our own institutions. The objections to any attempt

to copy it are very manifest, and need not here be discussed. Some of the features, however, may suggest valuable practical lessons for our own country. Some of these will be mentioned in the following recapitulation:

1st. The rivalry of the gymnasium and other schools has *scholarship* for its object, rather than *numbers*. It is regarded as no disgrace to graduate a class of half a dozen; but it would be disastrous to send up ill-prepared students to the University. Since the schools are controlled by the strong arm of German law such a misfortune is not thought of. The University admits its students on the certificate of the gymnasium, and feels far safer in this arrangement than by requiring entrance examinations.

2nd. *Unity of plan* is secured, for those stages of education which we choose to provide in different schools. The question of requiring Greek for admission to College does not trouble the German, for his rigid laws determine the character of the gymnasial course, and the lower as well as the higher classes are under the direction of one head.

3rd. The German offers several parallel courses of obligatory studies, which are usually taught in separate schools. The plan of allowing the student to choose this or that study, according to his own fancy, is not permitted until the completion of a thorough course of training, which may be estimated to require twelve years, and in which classical culture and discipline usually prevail. During this time, the discipline in the upper and the lower classes is not unvarying; the mode of address to the pupils of the former is "Sie," as in speaking to men, while "du" is the pronoun used for boys of the lower classes; yet the spirit of restraint, submission, and regulations, seems to pervade the whole institution.

4th. The variety of schools provided for the several classes of society and the different objects held in view, show us in clear terms that some *compromise* is necessary between the preparation for higher studies and preparation for an earlier entry into the active duties of practical life. Such a scheme of schools as that described would be quite foreign to the spirit of American institutions and the American people; yet it is firmly believed that a certain kind of training is best suited to develop the powers of nice discrimination, so essential for the successful pursuit of thorough studies and investigations in philosophy, literature, and science; while a course very different from the first 8 or 10 years of the same, is needed by those who must then leave school for the farm, workshop, or office. Our own High Schools have a twofold purpose to fulfil; they must not only afford preparation for the college, but must also give such an outline of general information as will be most serviceable to the very large class of citizens who cannot afford to pursue a fuller course of study. It would be gratifying to some of us, who are college teachers, to have our pupils uniformly well prepared for admission, by such special courses of disciplinary studies as would most effectually develop their powers of thought, and by a suitable introduction to the subject-matter of their college studies. It is too much for us to expect to realize our ideal in this matter, unless the other grand purpose of the High School is either made subordinate or is provided for by special means. With due regard for the

greatest good to the greatest number, we should endeavor to take a general view of the educational wants of the people, and not suffer ourselves to be biased by those claims which most nearly concern our own work.

The discussion was continued by Dr. I. W. ANDREWS, of Marietta College, E. H. COOK, of Columbus High School, Dr. SAMUEL MOSS, of Greencastle, Ind., Prof. L. L. ROGERS, of ———, Md., Dr. GEO. A. CHASE, of Louisville, Dr. ALEX MARTIN, of Asbury University, Dr. E. T. TAPPAN, of Kenyon College.

After the preceding pages were printed Prof. MAURICE KIRBY declined to furnish his paper for publication. The following abstract of it has been copied from the *Louisville Courier-Journal*:

THE STUDY OF SOCIAL ECONOMY IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

The essayist began by urging some of the conditions on which depend the success and permanence of our institutions. These are: First—That the popular mind shall firmly grasp the principle which underlies our social system, and shall exactly comprehend the sphere of government. Secondly—That it shall be taught the leading truths of political economy, both to guard it against economic fallacies, and especially to fortify it against a reaction fatal to personal liberty, inviting government to embrace duties besides those legitimately under its control. After some discussion of these points he next illustrated the importance of holding government to its proper end, and the advantage to be gained to our institutions through the general diffusion of the principles of political economy, by a discussion at some length of the economy of the labor question. He proceeded by saying that the connection, with little exception, now prevailing between capital and labor, is a grinding, repulsive contract. Neither party to it is wholly above reproach, the one side higgling for the most work at the least pay, the other holding out for the most pay for the least work. This unhappy conjunction puts him who sells his labor, and standing alone, at a disadvantage with him who buys it. The demands of to-day will not wait on the supply of to-morrow. A short time at most is sufficient to disarm the opposition of the laborer who subsists on the day's wages to the terms of the employer, who, should profits not attract investment, may bide his time and spend his wealth in the gratification of his wants or his tastes. In this posture of affairs the laborer has recourse to combination, and through it he seeks by force what he fails to obtain by conciliation. Trades-unions, thus far, has been the most effective weapon used for the defence of his rights, and for the punishment of his real or fancied wrongs. The purpose of the union, among other things, is mainly to urge an advance, or, as is more generally the case, to prevent a decline in the rate of wages. The leaders of these organizations often wilfully overlook, or are criminally ignorant, of the circumstances on which depend the rate of wages, and hence drive their

deluded followers into open revolt against the law of supply and demand—a law as infallible in its control of the proceeding of buying and selling labor, as it is in determining the price of any other marketable commodity. When laborers compete for employment, there being no exceptional increase of work, wages fall, and when employers compete against each other for the service of laborers, wages rise. This simple law governs the whole matter, and any attempts of trades-unions to escape its consequences will prove only futile, and end in manifest injury to the very class they are designed to benefit—the laboring class. The miscarriage of strikes (in England the Preston strike, the bricklayers' strike of London; in our country the strike of the miners of Ohio and Pennsylvania, and the strike of the railroad employes within the past few weeks—the poor victims squandering hundreds of thousands in maintaining an unequal combat; their heroic endurance moving our admiration, their distress, our pity, all show how ineffectual is the struggle against not what demagogues are pleased to call the tyranny of capital, but against the tyranny of an inexorable natural law.

The cause of the inability of Trades-Unions either to raise the rate of wages, or, what amounts to the same thing, to reduce the hours of labor, will appear clear in calling attention to a fact of vital importance in this controversy. Permit me to make the elementary statement, that so much of wealth as finds its way into the business of production, is called capital. Capital is divisible into three elements—the wages fund, or that part of it set aside for the payment of wages; raw material, such as the wood and cotton of the manufacturer; and that portion of it which takes the shape of buildings and machinery. The proportion of capital used for the maintenance of laborers will depend on the nature of the industry pursued. Much the larger share of it will be dedicated to wages among an agricultural people, and less to the purchase of implements and to the erection of buildings, which are few and need not be expensive in their construction. On the other hand, manufactures to be profitable in our day compel production on a large scale, and by consequence necessitate an extensive use of raw material, of highly-improved and costly machinery besides the putting up of substantial structures in which to carry on the various operations connected with the special branch of manufacture; therefore a proportionally larger amount of capital will find its way into these objects and less into the wages fund. Hence the inference that a given amount of capital will support in comfort a greater number of persons engaged in agricultural than in manufacturing pursuits, or, population and capital remaining the same, the rate of wages will be higher among a community of farm than of manufacturing laborers. I do not mean, of course, that the wages fund is diminishing absolutely, that is, decreasing in comparison with itself at one time and another, but that it grows less, year by year, relative to the other constituents of capital, where the disposition obtains, as at present in this country, to stimulate the direction of capital into channels of enterprise in which raw material and the fixed form of it greatly predominate. Not only so, but the wages fund in this condition of industry is constantly shrinking relatively, to the increase of population, the result being as constant a decline of real

wages. The multitude of those demanding work, swelling apace from natural addition and from immigration, with a daily or weekly dole, just sufficient to keep the body in working condition, and with little margin for the "Rainy Day," are confronted with a hopeless blighting poverty, which threatens, at no distant day, to overshadow them as it has for long weary years darkened the pathway of the English laborer, who, to use the strong language of Mr. Thornton, can not afford himself food and shelter nearly as good relatively as any carriage-keeping gentleman provides for his coach-horses, or every well-to-do-farmer for his cattle. Trades-unions are impotent to avert the doom which awaits the hapless dependent on daily wages; and right here government is invited to supplement their abortive efforts to regulate the remuneration of labor. This has been already done in two Western States, where, through legislation, the endeavor has been made to fix the rate of wages and to determine the hours of labor, and labor combinations, as may be seen from the workmen's resolutions in St. Louis, on the 26th of last month, are pressing with vigor a similar interference in their behalf by the Federal Government. Nor need they despair. While it is true that they have less money than their opponents, they have votes, and the American politician is not deaf to the appeals of the man with a ballot in his hand. But the Government will be equally as unsuccessful in this undertaking as trades-unions, and for a reason, besides the one just mentioned, which it will be good to notice. A permanent increase of wages beyond the normal rate can only be brought about by one of two methods—either to cause such a re-adjustment of the elements of capital as shall expand the wages fund—that is, by diminishing the investment, say in machinery, in order to satisfy the claims of the laborer, or to reach the same result by plundering the profits of the employer. The first method is so strikingly absurd that we need not fear it will ever be directly resorted to, since an attempted improvement in the circumstances of the laborer, by such action, would have the effect to lessen production, thereby to lessen profits, thereby to lessen the means for rewarding labor—a procedure sure to be much more fatal in its issue to the workingman than to his employer. The second method is not so obviously objectionable. A mistake is made by those who do not look beyond mere appearances, in confounding the net returns on capital with the per cent of profit, thinking if the one be large the other must be large also. The state of manufacturing industry imperatively demands for fortunate results the investment of a large capital. Now, while the aggregate gains of the capitalist in the average of years are frequently enormous, they but represent the current rate of profit, say 7 per cent in France, 5 per cent in England, and 10 per cent in this country. This fact the workingman is too apt to disregard, even if he is aware of it. Splendor contrasted with comparative destitution, the modest home with humble surroundings, the frugal fare, the monotonous round of toil, only relieved by the newspaper, the magazine or the occasional lecture, devoted perhaps to telling him how miserable he is; set over against the stately mansion and the luxuries of his employer, the trip to Europe, the season at Saratoga, the refined and elevating associations of wealth, intellect and culture, within whose charmed circle he,

republican as he is, dares not so much as set his foot—all stir the pride of the workman, hurt his vanity, plant the seed of bitter thought, and if he have longings for better things—and who has not, through his morbid imagination convert the man on whom he is dependent for his daily bread into an enemy who stands between him and fortune. It is not strange therefore, remembering what human nature is, reason being laid aside and taking counsel of his passions, that he should attempt, by an act of short-sighted injustice, to share his employer's profits. A good indication of the rate of profit is the current rate of interest. Taking one year with another, through a series of years, and comparing the different sections of the country with each other, 10 per cent will be found to be the average of interest for the use of money. Every man, then, who embarks in business, has a reasonable expectation of realizing a profit of 10 per cent on his venture, whether he does so or not. What the economists call the effective desire of accumulation is perhaps as strongly characteristic of Americans as of any other people in the civilized world. And we have good ground for believing that American enterprise would be as intense and unrelenting for a reward of 5 per cent as it is at present for a gain of double that amount. The great abundance of fertile and uncultivated land, the vast mineral resources of the country, manufacturers, anticipated railroads and telegraph lines, need much capital, both home and foreign, for their development and construction, making the contingency just hinted at an affair of the distant future. We may, therefore, conclude that ten per cent profit, although not the ultimate minimum, is the minimum which for the present and for years to come will tempt the investment of capital in uncertain and hazardous undertakings. Now, manufacturing is just such an industry, involving large outlay, attended with much risk, owing to bad sales, slow sales, the precariousness of labor, failing often when most needed—and above all, subjected to the losses incident to a competition always eager and frequently unscrupulous. The capitalist would scarcely incur the perils of manufacturing without some assurance of the current rate of profit, and that pledge is given him by the Government in the shape of protection against foreign competition. But the burden of augmented wages, in this case, must fall either upon the consumer or upon the employer. If upon the consumer, consumption will fall off in proportion to the enhanced price of the manufactured article, or, what is more likely, the effect will be to open the door wide to foreign competition, the very thing sought to be prevented by the imposition of exorbitant duties. If upon the employer, his usual profit must be sacrificed to the clamorous exactions of the employed, a performance certain, instead of benefiting the laborer, to terminate disastrously to him; for no man, disturbed by apprehensions of constantly-diminishing profits, would long continue his capital in the business of manufacturing, especially when he might engage it in pursuits less exposed to the humors of a capricious humanity. Thus we see capital and labor brought together upon terms of a hard bargain, a union which promises no hope of permanent peace; we see that the conditions of modern industry require the substitution of machinery for hand-labor, allowing a 'gradually-impaired portion of capital for the subsistence of an

unchecked population, and that trades-unions oppose an ineffectual barrier to the triumph of poverty, at once the result and the shame of our boasted civilization. We see, too, the anomalous and contradictory position of government, how, in mediating between capital and labor, it is guilty of a political wrong in surpassing the limits of its strictly defined duties; how it is guilty of an economic wrong, in arbitrarily fixing the rate of profits, and just as arbitrarily fixing the rate of wages; and how it is guilty of a moral wrong—violating the foundation principle of our social life—in taxing the many consumers to support the few producers, and afterwards in taxing the manufacturing class, in order to forward the interests of the laboring class. The truth is, our labor system is an irreconcilable conflict, not to be tranquilized by appeals to the law of supply and demand, nor by the expedients of government or trades-unions, and the sooner the people understand it the better—the better for their material interest, and the better for their stake in the perpetuity of free institutions. The idea of free government is repugnant to a *régime* of capital and labor, resting on supply and demand the inevitable outcome of which is a few rich and many poor. The blight consequent on the extremes of great wealth and abject poverty, the curse and disgrace of older communities, is sure, unless some way be found out of this business, to settle down on our people, and at the last destroy the happy balance between personal freedom and civil authority. And this is what I meant in saying a while ago that I had no objection to industrial progress, but that I did object to the relation in which at present the workingman stands to it.

He then concluded this branch of his subject by saying that the only way to redeem the workingman from the bondage of laboring for daily wages and forever driving the debate between capital and labor from the arena of politics was through co-operation.

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER INSTRUCTION.

First Day's Proceedings.

TUESDAY, AUGUST 14, 1877.

The Department met at 12 M., in the lower room of Liederkrantz Hall. In the absence of President D. C. GILMAN, LL. D., President of the Johns-Hopkins University, the Vice-President, Prof. ELI T. TAPPAN, of Kenyon College, Ohio, presided.

Prof. WM. LEROY BROWN, LL. D., of Vanderbilt University, read the following paper, on

THE ELECTIVE SYSTEM.

Dr. WAYLAND said, in an address delivered some years ago at Union College, "Our system of instruction has been for centuries the child of authority and precedent. If those before us made it what it is by applying to it the resources of earnest thought, I can see no reason why we by pursuing the same course might not improve it.

God intended us for progress, and we counteract His design when we deify antiquity and bow down and worship an opinion, not because it is either wise or true but merely because it is ancient."

In the comparison of the merits of different systems of instruction there can result only good, especially when we remember with WAYLAND, that as those before us made it what it is by earnest thought, it becomes our duty by equal earnestness to improve that which we have inherited. To admit we cannot improve the traditional methods handed down to us is, in blindly following the authority of the past, to confess our inferiority and our unworthiness of the age in which we live. It is our privilege to add our own experience to the combined experience of the past, and thus in making a larger induction to arrive at more perfect methods.

Under the sanction of authority long venerated, every college student, under the restrictive system, follows the well-known macadamized road that was graded through the field of human knowledge years ago, and sometimes so carefully graded as to avoid difficult ascents, when the horizon was less extended than at present. Now in modern days when the field of human knowledge has been so extended and the dark forests of ignorance felled by the hand of science, it is worthy of examination to see if,—not obstructing the old honored road, but rather improving it,—we cannot also in the enlarged view now afforded discover a new pathway whose advantages shall be in all respects equal if not superior to those of the old.

It is very true that to the culture given by the old college curriculum,

we are largely indebted for much that we have had in the past, and have now, that is excellent in oratory and literature. Yet, it is no less true that a mind, stored with that knowledge alone that was known to our fathers, is not educated in all that is requisite for modern life. As has been said, something more is needed than the Roman short-sword and Grecian shield to contend with the artillery of modern science.

It is eminently true of education that there must be an adaptation, a fitness of its character to the wants of the society for which it is intended. It must be adapted not to a limited portion of society, but to meet all its varied demands, not to the so-called learned professions only, but to all the varied avocations of life. It is a general principle, true also in matters of education, that there must exist an adaptation of the organism to its environment. This principle does not retard progressive development and compel an institution to follow in the wake of public opinion, by endeavoring to adapt itself thereto; for in education the laws of political economy are reversed, the supply is antecedent to and creates the demand.

But society with its varied wants, not the individual, is the environment to which our schools and colleges, constituting the organism of education, must be adapted. The wants of society are not those of the individual. This principle is comprehensive, and from it arises the demand for classical as well as for scientific education.

If the question is what is that education best adapted to that state of society, when accumulated wealth, representing the potential energy of former generations, gives the requisite leisure for the enjoyment of culture, we would advocate that excess of the humanities regarded by Locke as eminently adapted to fit one for the profession of a gentleman. But if it be what is that education of most worth to the individual, what demanded by the enlarged boundaries of human knowledge, what best adapted for those whose first care will be to provide for the physical necessities of life, what in harmony with the progressive spirit of this nineteenth century, we would advocate a large infusion of the physical sciences, so large that there might be an imbibition, or thorough absorption of scientific method and scientific energy.

It is this growth of modern science that has rendered necessary a change in our system of collegiate education. Yet it is not on the ground of so-called practical education but on that of mental discipline that the claims of science—education to at least an equality with that of the classics, should be presented.

The characteristic discipline of the study of science is to habituate the mind to accuracy of thought by the constant effort to visualize the conception, and hence to accuracy of expression; to form habits of inductive thought, to show the little worth of an isolated fact, and to give habits of self-reliance by cultivating independence of thought. It is eminently science-training that constitutes the "euphrasy and rue" by which the mental vision is purged of all prejudgments and is taught to love truth rather than victory.

Authority in science has little weight, opinions are valuable only so far as they represent generalizations of observed phenomena. It is the discipline of science that cultivates the faculty of accurate observation, not

simply the observation of the physical eye, but the superior observation of the mental vision.

But this necessity, on any and every ground, for a large introduction of science in our college courses needs no enforcement by argument. The only question, and that especially to be discussed by us, is how can that be done? What organization in the collegiate system is best adapted for instruction in both the permanent and progressive studies?

The different methods of organization used in America to effect this object may be reduced to the following classes:

1. We have the rigid unelastic classical curriculum, with the addition of a scientific department devoted to special instruction in science. In some of the older colleges there have been established these scientific schools, which, under a special corps of Professors, have in their great success added honor to the college and proved the demand for the character of the instruction given. This organization of necessity requires a large annual expenditure.

2. In some we have several parallel courses presented, in each of which there is a regular prescribed course of study, election on the part of the student being confined to the course.

3. Again we have institutions which prescribe the course for the first, or first and second collegiate years, and after that admit within fixed limits election from the different subjects presented.

In all these modified forms the class idea is kept distinctly in view. A student after a preliminary examination, generally of a very mild character, is admitted to a certain class, and in due course of time, without an infringement on his part of the college laws, he is honored with a degree.

4. There is another method of organization apparently not so generally known as those we have mentioned. In this each department of study constitutes a distinct school. The widest possible election of studies, consistent with qualification, is permitted, and students are awarded, in each school, certificates of proficiency or of graduation, only when they exhibit the requisite attainments. When the requisite number of certificates is obtained appropriate degrees are awarded, significant of the course of study pursued.

In this system, first introduced in America by THOMAS JEFFERSON in the organization of the University of Virginia, a quarter of a century before Dr. WAYLAND attempted its imitation at the college over which he presided, a system the recognition of which has been singularly omitted in some recent valuable works on collegiate education, and which an experience of half a century has shown to be neither "complicated in its arrangements nor in its workings," there are two marked characteristics. First, the college class as such is wholly ignored, in fact, has no existence; second, time is not an element requisite for graduation, as the degree is made to depend on qualification alone. Of several students who may be admitted to the same classes of the distinct schools at the same time, one may receive his degree in two years, one in four years, and others may not be able to graduate in a score of years.

It is not our design to compare the merits of these different systems. We propose simply to present some of the advantages of the elective system and especially of the last mentioned organization.

We adopt the distinction that defines a college to be "a training place for minds that are yet immature in the elements of knowledge and culture," and a university to be "a teaching place for those who are supposed to have been trained to the capacities and responsibilities of incipient manhood." Yet it is true that there are colleges that approximate nearer to the functions of a university than many of those institutions whose only claim to be considered universities is the name of which they boast. Secondary or collegiate education, designed for immature minds, to be efficient, cannot from its nature be largely elective. The architect has but little choice in the character of the foundation; that must be laid in solid masonry before the building is erected. Hence we would not recommend the elective system for immature minds, but for those which have been fairly disciplined by the studies which usually belong to the first and second years of American colleges, as well as for those of maturer years than ordinarily enter the first classes in our colleges. With us the distinction between college and university is only in name. Many of our colleges are doing university work, and some of our so-called universities are hardly doing respectable school work, and some, owing to the demands of their environment, have been compelled to make provision for collegiate education, while at the same time they extend their efforts in the higher departments to give university instruction.

It may have been well in former years to confine all students to the well-marked macadamized road. It was simple and effective for the limited means provided. It is the simplest organization, but is it the best?

Upon what principle is it best that every mind should be subjected to exactly the same discipline? Is it enough to prove that there is a benefit derived from a special study? The question is not what study will be of advantage, but rather what study will be of most advantage to the individual.

There is a discipline of language-study, and a discipline none the less valuable of science-study, and all that the advocates of science ask is, not to dethrone language, but to give science equality in educational rank and dignity. They contend that the discipline of science-education is not only equal but superior in many respects to that of language, and hence demand that the influences of the organization of the college shall not be more in favor of one education than the other,—that language may be classed among the electives as well as science, and that those who elect science shall not be degraded in the estimation of their fellow-students as being electives or irregulars.

The fact that in some institutions the elective courses of study failed to attract a large number of students cannot be justly used as an argument against the system, since this want of attractiveness was, it is probable, mainly due to the inferior position such studies were made to occupy in the organization.

As there exist differences of opinion among educators of equal experience in regard to the best subjects of educational discipline, it is obvious that no one scheme should be marked with special honor, no one road *through* the field of human knowledge given an undue prominence, *wherein all should be* required to work, there should be no Procrustean

bed to which all must be fitted, no adherence to a uniform discipline simply because respectable through the usage of years. But there should be provided different subjects of education, so arranged that mature and qualified young men may elect what, in the opinion of those best qualified to judge, will furnish that discipline and instruction which will best fit them for the duties of life.

Admitting then the necessity of making provision for different types of education, let us examine the advantages of an organization based upon equality of studies and freedom of election. By this we do not denote a system that tacks on to a regular classical course an incongruous appendage of "easy electives," and thus discredit in the beginning the course it has provided for, but rather a system that discards class organization, and places the attainment of a degree on qualification alone, and not on time.

What are the advantages that this system possesses?

1. It is adapted alike to those who take a scientific course as well as to those who take a classical or a partial course. Each occupies a position of equal dignity among his college companions. Mutual benefits are conferred by the intermingling of students of different departments, and that one-sided development so much deplored by educators fails to find the encouragement that is apt to be given by special scientific schools.

2. It is broad, plastic, expansive, and progressive. It includes all that the four years' curriculum does and more also, and in addition possesses that plasticity that makes ready provision for advancement in any department of human learning without organic change. With a regular prescribed curriculum it is impossible to introduce a new subject of study without trenching upon some other department. Time in the prescribed system is an element of graduation. A limited amount of time is given to each subject, and hence the advocate of the introduction of a new subject of study, finding the time of the student preoccupied by an enforced rule with other studies, is compelled to plead for a diminution in some other department. Under this working new subjects have been introduced to the detriment of the cause of education. We have from the very best authority this condemnation of what we regard as the legitimate result of the prescribed system.

"The spirit of *cram*," says Dr. PORTER, "and of the superficial and mechanical mastery of a few elements of many sciences is the curse of the colleges as they are. To intensify this tendency, as has been done persistently for the past generation, is to permit the worst of all blunders." Breadth has been gained at the expense of depth, while the college student has thus learned *something* of *many things*, has he also learned *much of something*? Has not the boasted liberal education become rather a "smattering of omniscience?"

But it is urged as an objection to the elective system that students of immature minds are not capable of electing such studies as will be of most worth to them, and that when the privilege is granted they will always elect the least difficult subjects. Facts show that this apprehension is groundless, especially when increased age is required for admission. In a given number of years, at the University of Virginia,—more than forty,—where the largest privilege of election has been permitted, we find that

twice as many students have elected mathematics and ancient languages as have elected chemistry.* This fact shows the contrary to what the objectors have urged. The more difficult subjects which constitute the basis of all thorough education are more frequently elected than the less difficult ones. The practical working of this system is that the election is made for the young student by his parent or teacher, before he enters college, or by his professor when he enters.

3. There cannot be a greater misapprehension of the effects of a proper elective system than to suppose it degrades scholarship, "encourages literary triflers," and is, as has been said, an "American expedient to dignify superficial and limited attainments by high-sounding names." In fact it elevates rather than degrades scholarship.

With the prescribed curriculum it is frequently true that a college degree simply means that the recipient has had the opportunity presented to him of acquiring an education by a college residence. It does not always indicate that he is even moderately well acquainted with the prescribed course of study, inasmuch as the chief element of success is time and not proficiency. How many students in our colleges are rejected at the close of the senior year for deficiencies? If the reports of the number of recent failures of the Senior class of our oldest university be correct it only proves the more rigid exactness of the examinations in an institution that has but recently given sanction to the elective system.

As educators we cannot give adhesion to the popular delusion that the success of an institution is indicated by the number of its graduates. Nothing can be simpler than to place a given number of students in the same class, and at the end of a given time to award all, whose removal has not been caused by a violation of discipline, with a collegiate degree. That this has been the custom of too many of our colleges cannot be denied. The desire to have a large number of graduates, in connection with the increase of small colleges in our country, has caused a degradation of scholarship that has in many instances brought discredit on the system of collegiate education. It probably would be well for some to remember the fable of the wolf and the lioness, 'better one at a birth, if a lion.'

Because there are few graduates in an institution organized with the elective system does not prove that the system provokes idleness and engenders little study, but rather the rigor of the examinations. Many who fail to pass under the elective system, under the class system would be awarded with a degree; but we fail to see how that act of the authorities renders them better educated.

4. The elective system elevates scholarship by placing the test examination at the close of the course instead of at the beginning. In the

* An accurate report of the number of students in attendance in each class, at the University of Virginia, where the largest election is allowed, from 1825 to 1867, exhibits the following result:

In the department of Mathematics.....	4,672	students
" " " " Ancient Languages	4,117	"
" " " " Modern Languages	3,720	"
" " " " Natural Philosophy.....	3,215	"
" " " " Moral Philosophy.....	2,967	"
" " " " Chemistry.....	2,122	"

prescribed system all who enter the admission-gate, are, on good behavior and a certain residence, passed out honorably at the exit-gate at the close of the fixed period. In the elective system the exit-gate is guarded with extreme care, for here in a great measure depends the reputation of the special school: since by this independence of schools the professor is enabled to make more rigid exactions than possible with a system that compensates deficiency in one department with success in another. The system also thus reacts on the professor, and stimulates him to do his maximum amount of work. Ingress, in the elective system, to a class is easy, but egress with success is difficult.

It is encouraging to note the efforts now being made to improve the character of professional education. In some institutions we observe the time required to be devoted to study is increased, in others—and this we regard as the more hopeful sign—candidates for degrees are required to stand an admission-examination on general subjects of discipline. Educators everywhere will be found in perfect accord with the praiseworthy effort to elevate the tone of the profession by increasing the general culture of those who present themselves as candidates, and we may be permitted to suggest that it is worthy of examination to determine whether the same cannot be better accomplished by giving less prominence to the element of time and the idea of class graduation, and by making the attainments requisite for a degree depend on qualifications alone, as exhibited by success at rigid final examinations,—which to be exact should be written and not oral. These final examinations for a professional degree should be made to embrace not only the technical subjects of professional study, but such elementary subjects of educational value with which every one admitted to the profession should be familiar.

Probably it would not be considered as transgressing the bounds of propriety for us as educators to express our regret that an extremely-limited knowledge of the most elementary subjects of education is not, by some institutions, regarded a barrier to full admission to all the honors of the so-called learned profession. We hail the movement just begun as the beginning of a change that will have an important influence in elevating the tone of professional education.

5. We present it as an argument in favor of the elective system, and not as an objection to it, that the distinctive class as such has no existence. College life, with its pleasures and benefits, is intimately associated in the minds of many with the existence of a class. With the absence of the *esprit* that attaches to the class, in their opinion, much of the benefit of college residence would be lost. With them the class is an unmixed good.

Education is designed to fit for life, and while the class system has its advantages in cultivating the social nature, it does not require an acute observer to note its defects. It is an artificial system that tends to uphold the weak and idle, and conceal deficiencies. It is a stream that collects pure and impure water and carries both alike to its destination. It is a breeze that wafts the effortless ship to the desired haven.

When the student leaves college he finds nothing in life to correspond to the class. He, not unfrequently, has been educated to rely on the class, obtaining from it position and receiving with it, at the expiration

of the required time, his coveted degree, and sometimes receiving the degree because he was a member of the class and not because he exhibited the proficiency that merited it.

This class reliance is an evil of the system, and in a great measure accounts for the "incurribly idle" that are so often complained of in some of our institutions, and besides it not unfrequently happens that what students regard as a college honor involves an entire class in a violation of authority, and subjects the good and evil alike to serious discipline, an evil that results wholly from the existence of the class. On the contrary, the elective system teaches self-reliance and develops individuality. The student is taught self-reliance in the fact that his success depends on himself alone. Time will not help him, the class cannot aid him. At his final examination nothing but his own cultivated intellect and the product of his own acquisitions can assist him. Success or failure in college, as in life, will depend on his own energy and industry. This education of self-reliance, of freedom from artificial aids of class, we regard as one of the chief merits of the elective system.

Under a proper organization this system admits those young men—who by reason of limited time and means desire to prosecute some special subject of study,—on terms of equality in college life, and does not force them, as is the case when special subjects only are elected to occupy, according to college conventionalism, a mortifying position of social inferiority. It receives them in the body of the students on terms of equality, and awards them the honors of the college in any special department in which they may exhibit superior attainments. While under the prescribed system a Faraday could not have been admitted to the Freshman class, under the elective system he would have been honored as a student for his special attainments.

It is concentration that gives power, that gives the ability to perceive with definiteness and accuracy. And him we regard as educated who though he may not have been trained in languages or mathematics, can sharply define the line that divides his knowledge from his ignorance. True education is the knowing *much* of *something* as well as the knowing *something* of *many things*. And any system we regard as so far incomplete that while expending all its energies to give the *multa* fails to inspire the mind with that desire that will only be satisfied with the *multum*.

The power given by concentration in education is well explained by BAIN: "After a certain number of acquirements in the various regions of study," he knows "nothing that occurs is absolutely new; the amount of novel matter is continuously decreasing as our knowledge increases, * * our facility in taking in new knowledge improves steadily, the fact being that the knowledge is so little new that the forging of fresh admissions is reduced to a very limited compass."

7. Again the effort to subject all minds to the same mental discipline in conformity with the prescribed restrictive system is in violation of a principle which affects the individual and the State. "For the individual," said the President of Harvard, "concentration and the highest development of his own peculiar faculty is the only producer. For the State it is variety not uniformity of intellectual product which is needful."

Here is an irrefragable argument in favor of the elective system, and against that organization that imposes uniformity of mental training and instruction. The educational wants of the individual and the State are not the same. The full development of the individual requires *unity*, that of the State *variety*. It is this system that encourages that unity of development gained by prosecuting a department of knowledge for which there exists a natural aptitude. "Concentration," says EMERSON, "is the secret of strength in politics, in war, in trade, in short in all management of human affairs." And in education, we may add, this secret is not to be disregarded. It is not breadth of culture that gives power so much as depth. It is not surface cultivation but subsoiling that stands the drought. Veneered material, though beautifully polished, will not stand the wear of solid oak.

MILTON's oft-quoted definition of a complete and generous education, as that which fits a man to perform skilfully, magnanimously, and justly, all the offices both public and private of peace and war, we regard as a theoretical conception impossible of realization, existing only in the imagination of a poet, a learning-something-of-everything theory that never has been and never can be accomplished. We would modify MILTON's definition and define a generous education to be that which fits a man to perform skilfully, magnanimously, and justly, *one* of the offices, *either* public or private, of peace or war.

It is thus only progress in the world has been made, thus only by concentration can the full power of the individual be manifested.

After the reading of this paper the Department adjourned until 3 P. M.

3 o'clock P. M.

At the suggestion of Prof. E. S. JOYNES, the Secretary of the Department, Dr. NOAH PORTER's paper on the Class System, read by Dr. TAPPAN at a subsequent time, is printed here as it was practically discussed under the general question involved in Prof. BROWN's paper.

THE CLASS SYSTEM.

By the Class System as contrasted with the Elective System is meant a fixed curriculum, as distinguished from a course of optional studies. I cannot suppose that any educator would object to the use of classes in school, or college, or university. As we can neither understand nature nor control nature till we classify individual objects, so we can neither understand man nor train man, till we avail ourselves of the common likenesses and sympathies by which man is organized into society and made to instruct and stimulate his fellow-man. Science is impossible till classification begins, and education whether in the family, the kindergarten, or the school, begins only when like is brought to its like through the in-

structive guidance of parent or teacher and the quickening excitements of children of nearly equal attainments. From the half-articulate lisplings and the expressive gestures of two infants whom chance brings together for an hour to the exciting encounters of two intellectual giants like SAMUEL JOHNSON and EDMUND BURKE, or BEN. JOHNSON and WILLIAM SHAKESPEARE, man is continually educating his fellow-man; like with like.

These thoughts may seem to be irrelevant commonplaces. I introduce them because not a few theorists in education seem in a measure to have lost sight of the important truth that education is necessarily social, in consequence of the very current reiteration of the truth that individual tastes and adaptations should be chiefly regarded in our educational arrangements. We ought never to forget that if men are to be educated they must in some sense come into communication with their kind and share in a common intellectual and moral life.

I do not deny, nor would I in the least depreciate the importance of what is called Self-Education. I should also be one of the last to undervalue the truth that skill and success in a teacher are tested by his sagacious insight into the individual peculiarities of his pupils and his masterly control over them, but I cannot forget that in order to either he must bring them under the influence of the common life of their kind—and that unless he does this education is impossible. Even when a single child is given over to the undivided influence of a single teacher, it is only as the pupil is brought into active sympathy with other minds—through books and an actual or imagined community of fellow-beings like himself that education becomes possible.

It will be scarcely questioned that in public institutions of education, considerations of economy require that pupils of equal capacities and attainments should be taught in classes. We all recognize the truth that in the wayside school the first advance is made from chaos to kosmos, when the children instead of saying their lessons one by one are gathered into groups. It is now universally conceded that in this way they can be more effectually taught and excited by their teacher, and at the same time may instruct and inspire one another. The establishment of graded schools from the primary to the High School is acknowledged as essential to the efficiency and success of any system of Public Schools. This involves a fixed curriculum, with all the attendant disadvantages, as of large classes, excessive and wearisome routine, and failure of the highest conceivable adaptation to the diverse capacities, tastes, and attainments, of individual pupils.

What is true of Public Schools is true of all those elementary schools which prepare for colleges or business life. It is acknowledged universally that certain studies are essential to an elementary education, and these studies are insisted on, by common consent. The curriculum varies somewhat with the circumstances of individual pupils, and the cultivation of the community. More or fewer studies are taken up into this curriculum, but as fast as society becomes organized certain studies are inserted as absolutely necessary to a school as distinguished from a college or university education. These constitute the fixed curriculum and are taught *to classes at assigned periods of time, with regular examinations.*

The same method is followed in our Schools of Law, Medicine, Theology, Science, and Technology. All the so-called professional schools and the majority of our Schools of Science and the Arts recognize very distinctly the truth, that certain studies are essential to the successful profession or practice of the Science or Art for which the school is a preparation. In many cases the State seeks to guard the door of the profession or guild. In every case the community not only consents but demands that fixed courses of studies should be prescribed, covering definite periods of time. Most of these studies are appropriate to the university, so far as the university is distinguished from the college, and yet the sentiment is gaining if possible a firmer hold of the public, that in these schools the class system with a fixed curriculum should be rigidly enforced. Those schools which under any specious pretence shorten the time of study, or abandon the classification of their pupils, are visited with severe and well-merited criticism. Harvard University has recently made itself conspicuous and honorable by introducing into its School of Medicine, several features every one of which is a re-inforcement of the class system and fixed curriculum, which it has seemed to repudiate, if not to abandon, in the Academical Department. The weight of opinion seems to be more and more fixed, and more and more distinctly expressed, in favor of a complete and definite preparation for every department of public activity by a course of prescribed study extending through a definite term of time. I do not forget that very many persons in our country have become not only eminent, but pre-eminent in every one of the professions—as also in every sphere of civil and military service, without a technically-professional training, but I cannot be mistaken when I assert that the more eminent such persons have become the higher is their appreciation of the importance of such a training. Nor can I be mistaken in asserting that as our civilization becomes more advanced the more rigorously will the requirement be enforced, that no man shall be entrusted with the responsibilities of public service, who cannot give proof that he has made those studies and undergone that discipline which are formally expressed in a fixed curriculum prescribed for a definite period.

It would be silly and pedantic to insist that no man shall be admitted to the responsible posts of professional or public service who cannot produce his diploma from the High School or the College; the School of Science or of Art—although it is not impertinent to notice that such a requisition or its equivalent has within the last two generations lifted Prussia from the meanest to the proudest position on the Continent of Europe. I would insist, however, that if we are to maintain a high standard of special or professional culture in this country, our special schools of training must prescribe a fixed curriculum of study and appoint a definite period of time for its prosecution.

If these views are just, they will have prepared us to understand and rightly to determine the question before us. We assume that no one will question, for the reasons already given, that the class system and the fixed curriculum are essential to the best working of professional schools, on the one hand, and public and academical schools, on the other. The question before us is, whether a similar system should be applied in a

course of college or university training. This question in our view is nearly identical with the question whether such a course of training shall be retained in our country at all. Unless such a course of study and discipline shall be made permanent and honorable by a fixed curriculum and a prescribed term of years it can have no recognized place in our educational system. Unless the class system can be retained, no place will be reserved in our country, for that higher general culture, which has hitherto been assigned to our Colleges and Universities, intermediate between the High School and the Academy on the one side, and the professional or technical school on the other. That the introduction of the elective system into the colleges would tend to this result is manifest from most of the arguments that are used in favor of this system—such as that the student has thereby the opportunity of selecting those studies which will be of the greatest service in his future life; or for which he feels the strongest interest, or toward which he has a prevailing inclination; all of which arguments imply that the value of the college course depends on its relation to the special line of life which the student expects to pursue.

We contend that education of every kind, whether general or special, has a higher aim than to qualify a man for any sphere of practical or professional life; that aim, is the culture of the man who is to practice the art or fill the profession. The wider is the culture and the more liberal is the training, if other things are equal, the more complete will be his fitness for his special occupation, provided he superadds to this general culture, the requisite professional knowledge and skill. We contend that as the elementary education of the Academy or Public School, introduces the pupil to that knowledge of language of man, and nature, and computation, which is deemed requisite for his individual and social life, there is ample room and imperative need for an enlargement of this general knowledge of language, computation, science, literature, and history, for as many as are to be leaders and guides of their fellow-men, in the special spheres of public and professional life, we contend that this higher college and university training should be prosecuted before they enter upon their appropriately-professional studies. It is true that all study whether general or special is more or less disciplinary. It is true that a professional and technological curriculum involves culture, but it is also true that every description of special training requires for its best effect that enlargement of elementary knowledge which is furnished by the studies usually assigned to the college or university. If now, such studies are rightly conceived to be necessary they should be prescribed as a fixed curriculum. But such a curriculum implies that those only can enter upon it with advantage who are prepared by previous study. This implies an entrance examination or its equivalent. For the reasons already given, if students are equally well qualified, instruction and training can be imparted with greater efficiency and profit if they are gathered into classes. It cannot be expected that all the members of any one class should be equally gifted, or equally industrious, or equally enthusiastic, or equally well trained. If the classes are large and there are striking inequalities of capacity or industry in their members, the

classes may be subdivided and the instruction and tasks adapted to the capacities of the members of these divisions. Extra studies or studies for special honors may be superadded, and still an average amount of diligence and success may be made the condition of an honorable testimonial; when the student proceeds to the professional or technological school or to higher attainments in some specialty of general learning.

The theory of higher education which has been briefly sketched, has been generally accepted since the revival of learning, and has shaped the constitution and administration of our colleges and universities with their classes, their curricula, their examinations, and their degrees. A brief sketch of these institutions may give us a clearer conception of the American college and its appropriate place and proper functions. The German and French Universities are what we should call professional schools, with the addition of schools of Philology, Physics, Metaphysics, and Mathematics, all looking toward the degrees of Medicine, Law, Theology, Philosophy, or to some testimonial upon examination which shall admit to some honorable place in public life. These degrees and testimonials, not only presuppose a successful examination, but a fixed curriculum usually of lectures, extending over a prescribed number of terms. They also presuppose a rigorous course of enforced study at the *Gymnasium* or *College* or *Lyceé*, which is analogous to that prescribed in the American college, with this difference, that the latter in the last year proposes studies and gives instruction which in France and Germany are assigned to the University. The English University prescribes a curriculum with residence as the conditions for its degrees, with admission to special honors and rewards on passing rigid competitive examinations in a very limited number of special departments mostly, we may say wholly, in the line of general as contrasted with professional culture. The Scottish Universities are the most consistent adherents of the elective system which is so strongly recommended in this country and has been introduced in part into a few American colleges. These universities give but few degrees. So far as the curriculum of general culture is fixed, it is determined by requirements and a sentiment which is outside of the university, created by ecclesiastical bodies and professional guilds, etc., etc. The American college was originally modelled after one of the colleges of the English University, but it has undergone many changes in accordance with the peculiarities of American life and the rapid developments of modern science and modern learning. Most, if not all of these changes have been taught and confirmed by experiment, and have been safely incorporated into their original structure in the way of natural assimilation and growth. The earliest important deviation from the typical American college was made by the organization of the University of Virginia, which whether designedly or not approached more nearly in its constitution and workings to the Scotch University than to any other model. It allows the student to elect as many or as few courses of study as he chooses—arranging these courses for his convenience, but leaving it for his option to select those which he will attend. For its degrees it prescribes a severe curriculum which it enforces by a rigid examination, but as these degrees are given to mark rare and extraordinary attainments, the majority of the

students have little care for them—the public little interest in them—this being the case, it is not surprising that degrees in Arts or in the several professional schools are rarely sought for. The certificates or testimonials which the majority of students receive in their place must necessarily be so varied in their signification as to have no significance, even to the limited public of educated men.

More recently in the University of Michigan and the Cornell University, elective courses of study have been introduced, running through several terms, of which the several branches are arranged in a certain order of progress and relationship, and each leads to a special degree.

Under this arrangement the old class system has not been abandoned—nor the fixed curriculum except so far as special students are admitted freely (especially in Cornell University) to study any high branch of knowledge which he is judged capable of pursuing with advantage. Inasmuch, however, as these various courses and their degrees require a residence for a fixed term of years, the integrity of the classes must be more or less weakened and the culture and stimulus which proceed from a common life in liberal studies must be far less marked and positive. In Harvard College, residence for four years is required with now and then a possible exception. A single degree is proposed in the college proper. A fixed curriculum for the candidates for this degree is however abandoned after the end of the first year. After the Freshman year a multitude of elective studies (not courses) is proposed, a certain number of which must be taken in order to admission to the first degree in Arts. We observe also that in many if not all of the colleges there is an increasing partiality for elective studies on the part of professors and teachers for reasons which are sufficiently obvious. There is also a popular desire for such studies, on the part of students who are naturally impatient of the severity of any study which is imposed and of the value of which they can know but little. The changes in the direction already made are so many and the tendency to other changes is so decided that the inquiry is becoming serious and practical, whether any curriculum of studies is to have any significance even when it seems to be retained if a great diversity of studies is to admit to a degree in Arts or if the number of degrees is to be so largely increased as to outgrow the capacity even of the educated public, to interpret the significance of the letters by which the degree is symbolized. It is also a question whether the colleges of the country in aiming to become universities, will not in fact become professional and technical schools, and whether a curriculum of general and generous culture shall have any place in our educational arrangements except in the High School and Academy; viewed in this aspect the discussion of the claims and advantages of the class as compared with the elective system becomes important.

The writer holds that it is vitally important to the culture of this country, he would almost say to the existence of this country as a country, that the American College with its class system, its fixed curriculum, its generous and earnest common life and its enforced discipline, should be retained and re-enforced, and for the following reasons.

It is important that the ideal of what constitutes a generous education

should be distinctly defined and should be made familiar to the public mind and should be suitably honored in order that the civilization of the country may be sustained and advanced. There is no method by which these results can be attained so effectually as for the institution of higher education to require certain studies in a fixed curriculum. If nothing else is accomplished one end is certainly secured and that is the assertion for these studies, the place of honor which they deserve. If the colleges do nothing more by this arrangement they testify to the importance that every man should have some acquaintance with the ancient languages and with ancient life, with modern languages and modern history and with the sciences of nature and of man which are working such changes in modern civilization and modern speculation. We believe that it is true, that with the best appliances and under favoring circumstances, this cycle of studies can be mastered with reasonable success by any studious and earnest youth of ordinary endowments, with ordinary industry, and that it is well for the community to accept the conviction that every young man who aspires to the highest position in society must master this curriculum at whatever sacrifice of disinclination or labor. It is not for our colleges to indulge the whims or fancies or the indolence of the young men of a country like ours, nor to pander to the prejudices of half-educated and conceited specialists who are tempted to despise or depreciate those branches of knowledge of which they are ignorant. It is urged indeed by the advocates of elective studies that we exalt the curriculum of generous studies, to still higher honor when we give the opportunity for eminent attainments in special branches—as in the classics or the mathematics or the physical and moral sciences—by concentrating the energies and kindling the enthusiasm of a few pupils in each direction.

To this we reply, that so far as the community is concerned, the colleges which adopt this system declare that it is not necessary that the generously-educated man should know something of all these studies, in order to take his place among its leaders and guides—on the contrary they assert that it is better that he should master some few of these studies; even if he be wholly or almost wholly ignorant of the rest. The educators of the country would say in effect that a mastery of Greek and Latin or Philology is wisely purchased at the cost of entire ignorance of modern physics and physiology with their wide-reaching applications to every form of human belief and every species of human institutions. They insist that a student who is to devote himself to history or political science should select from the curriculum those studies which bear most directly upon his subsequent life—overlooking the fact that not a few of the studies which seem remote may prove to be most important and that he must remain in total ignorance of them, unless he masters their elements in his youth.

We repeat the assertion that the colleges do a great service though it be an undesired service to the community by holding its youth to the necessity of a fixed curriculum as the condition of entering into the honorable rank of generously-educated men. They cannot render this service by providing for instruction in this round of studies while they are elective, because they thereby testify that eminent attainments in a few

branches are equally if not more valuable than a general acquaintance with all.

To this it is replied, that the university does by no means abandon the theory of a generous education by making its studies largely elective, but requires that the elements of certain branches of science and learning should be learned at the High or Preparatory school. And yet its advocates urge as a reason for the elective system that under the fixed curriculum even when extended through the university the attainments are so meagre. They assert that under the enforced system, whether it be classics, mathematics, or any of the sciences—with all the time and force of both preparatory school and college, nothing beyond a scattering of results is achieved and yet they argue that all which the pupil needs to know, say of Greek or astronomy or chemistry or physiology can be learned at the preparatory school. They assume moreover that as soon as the magic influence of the opportunity to elect one's studies begins to act—every student will be inspired with enthusiasm, will be animated to industry and will move forward to eminent success in some favorite field of activity.

The class system again brings the important advantage of uniting the students in those common sympathies and that common life which grows out of common interests and common pursuits. We assume that it is of the greatest service that the men of culture and education in any country, pre-eminently in a country like ours, should have common convictions and common sympathies. Common convictions must have as their basis common studies. Common sympathies must grow out of congenial tastes. Unless the men of highest education have common thoughts and common sympathies among themselves, they can neither form a community among themselves nor exert a strong and united influence upon the community without. Unless the students of our schools of liberal learning are held together in the same class by a curriculum of common studies—they will be divided into separate cliques or factions. If the devotees of science and culture desire and expect to exert that influence in the commonwealth, which it is their duty and privilege to exert, they must be united by common bonds of thought and feeling. The culture which they represent must be honored by a definite curriculum in which each one has had a personal share and from which each has derived a conscious advantage and in which every one has enlightened faith and for which he feels an intelligent and fervent gratitude. It is not alone for his successes and acquisitions that the student of the American College is grateful. Even his failures and his neglects continue to instruct and warn him intellectually and morally, in all his subsequent life. Viewed in this aspect the common studies, and common pursuits—the achievements and failures—the sympathies and the antipathies attendant upon the class system, constitute a very important part of the general and the generous education of the college life. The college itself becomes by these characteristics an important bond of union and source of inspiration to the entire community.

If on the other hand the college or university is only the common dwelling-place of many separate sets or cliques, each shut up for the time to its special studies, its selected instructors and its limited spheres of instruc-

tion and inspiration,—if even these cliques are constantly disintegrated and reconstituted, largely of new materials, the chances are that the opportunities for intellectual and personal intercourse will be limited to brief periods and shut up within narrow bounds; or if social relations occasionally shall stretch across the boundary lines drawn by special and favorite studies these relations are not necessarily cemented by common intellectual tastes and activities.

It is otherwise when a college class is gathered at the beginning of four years to pursue for four successive years substantially the same curriculum. During this period, the most exciting and plastic period of life, the members of this class are brought into contact with each other and as their capacities are tested their growth is observed—their characters are manifested and, it may be, are changed for the better or the worse. They seem at times to learn as much from one another whether in success or failure as they learn from their text-books and their instructors. It cannot be questioned that the opportunities of studying one another under these varied experiences prepare them eminently for the knowledge of their fellow-men in subsequent life.

It is not to be denied that certain disadvantages are incidental to the class system, and the enforced curriculum. There is more exposure to wearisome routine—there is less opportunity of taking advantage of decided tastes or preferences in individuals and of making extraordinary acquisitions in a special line of studies. These advantages, however, are dearly purchased at the cost of the certain evils which attend the elective system in fostering capricious self-indulgence, unreasonable and ignorant tastes and in opening the way to habitual indolence. Compulsion is an odious term—but the best things come to men through the force of necessity—which compels them to do what they are disinclined to, and often through the judgment of those who are older and more experienced than themselves. We offer no apology for teaching which is mechanical and perfunctory. We are well aware that it is never pleasant to press men to study what they do not believe in or do not like, but we have yet to learn that under an elective system indolence and neglect and superficial work are unknown. We have abundant evidence that under the Class System those who do the best work are the most eager for special improvement and those who stand highest for general excellence are most eager to perform extra and elective work. Whatever advantage attends elective studies, may be attained by giving such studies a limited place in the regular curriculum. By such an arrangement all the desired variety can be secured, individual tastes may be gratified and the satisfaction of mastering some special field of study may be experienced.

Some of the reasons which are urged in favor of the election of studies according to the tastes and prospective occupations of life seem to be arguments for the very opposite method. The very fact that a young man has a positive distaste for the mathematics and as decided a love for the classics may be a reason why he should be trained in the very school the threshold of which he desires to avoid. If he is to be an engineer or a chemist all his life it may be the more desirable that he should know something of the languages and of philosophy and should even be compelled to give atten-

tion to studies of which he would otherwise be lamentably ignorant. The very fact that he is to make no direct or conscious use of these studies may be the best evidence that these studies will be the most useful.

It is urged with great earnestness by the advocates of elective studies, that at the present time the necessity is imperative for a division of labor by reason of the immensely-augmented field of intellectual activity, which is opened by new discoveries in the material and spiritual universe as well as by the severe demands which the new learning makes upon the student of history and philosophy. This division of labor should be commenced, it is argued at the earliest possible period. Such a division is the only condition of the highest eminence or usefulness. We admit the fact, but deny the inference; rather do we derive from the fact the very opposite conclusion. While it is true that the special fields of scientific and literary research are becoming more and more limited, and more and more absorbing, it is also true that the facilities for investigation are multiplied in the same proportion that the results of other men's labors are more and more available and, what is most important, the broad and intense light of the widest generalizations is becoming more and more available in deciding special questions. It is so far from being true that the specialist from the beginning has the promise of eminent success that on the contrary he is the man of all others to whom the highest success is certain to be denied, and this for the reason that for every department of knowledge, light can be derived from many others, or rather from those general truths which the study of many special sciences is certain to reveal. A hard and positive narrowness of mind is the besetting danger of the science and literature of the present day. Only those men can rise above it who look beyond the boundaries of their own special field of study and labor. Against this inevitable exposure no security can be more effectual than a general and generous education at the beginning. The absorbing and limiting demand of professional and practical life and the inexorable requirements of a division of labor are decisive arguments for such an education wherever it is attainable. The patent fact that in the field of science men who begin as specialists, like TYNDALL, and HUXLEY, and HELMHOLTZ and SPENCER, manifest the gift of scientific genius by the impulse and attempt to settle all the great problems of Philosophy and Theology, is itself a proof that every student of Science or Technology would be greatly benefited by a special training in history, literature, language, and philosophy.

It is equally true on the other hand that no man can understand the movements of the present age or is competent to influence them in the field of literature who does not interest himself in the new problems which are proposed and the new solutions which are given in the sciences of nature. The narrowness of many modern *littérateurs* is equally conspicuous with the manners of many devotees and schools of physical science. The tendency of the students of nature on the one hand and the students of man on the other to go farther and farther apart is becoming more and more positive and more and more dangerous. Nothing can be more effectual in withstanding this tendency, or can bring and hold these divergent classes to a common understanding than the adhesion to the old theory of a truly liberal education as the appropriate and necessary introduction to every

special department of study and culture. It is not necessary in order to hold this method that we should not modify and enlarge it to suit the changing demands of the times.

The class system and the fixed curriculum will certainly not succeed unless they are administered by scholarly, enthusiastic, and self-sacrificing instructors. In defending these features of the college system we are not required to overlook or to deny the imperfections with which this system is often administered and the unsatisfactory character of its results. None of these imperfections of administration or results are however fairly chargeable to the college system as such. Some of them may be owing to the imperfect preparation for the course on the part of teachers and pupils. Others can be traced to the very defective education of the community and the very low conceptions which prevail of the nature and value of the higher education. The college system cannot stand alone. It depends on the lower schools, and these depend on the sentiments of the community in respect to education and the culture which the community itself has attained.

In view of the many defects which attend the operation of any system, it is easy to imagine that the novel and the untried will produce better results than the familiar and the tried. There seems however to be no good reason for abandoning the old system for the new. While it is obviously practicable and desirable to introduce elective and special studies into a fixed curriculum, there seems to be no reason for doubting that under similar conditions, the class system and the fixed curriculum ought to be retained.

This paper has been prepared under many disadvantages in the Adirondack woods, and is submitted with much hesitation and diffidence, as the expression of the convictions of the writer, rather than as an extended argument.

DISCUSSION.

The discussion was conducted by Dr. LEMUEL MOSS, of Indiana; Dr. I. W. ANDREWS, of Ohio; Dr. ALEX. MARTIN, of Indiana; Major WM. J. DAVIS, of Kentucky; Prof. E. S. JOYNS, of Tennessee; Prof. THOS. R. PRICE, of Virginia; and Prof. W. LEROY BROWN, of Tennessee. It is regretted that none of the speakers have furnished their valuable remarks for publication.

Second Day's Proceedings.

WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 15, 1877.

The Department met at 3 P. M. This was the hour assigned in the programme for Prof. A. B. STARK's paper on "The Place of English in the Higher Education," but by a change it had already been read in the forenoon

before the General Association. Prof. CHAS. K. ADAMS's paper on "College Dormitories" was by vote deferred until next year, with the request that the author be present to read it. The Department then proceeded to discuss Prof. STARK's paper, and also Prof. PRICE's paper on "The Study of English as introductory to the Study of Latin and Greek," read in the General Association on Tuesday evening. The discussion was participated in by Dr. J. W. CHENAULT, of Kentucky, Prof. J. D. PICKETT, of Kentucky, Prof. W. R. WEBB, of Tennessee, and the Hon. GEO. W. HILL, of Arkansas.

Prof. W. R. WEBB's paper on "The Relation of the Preparatory or Grammar School to College and University," read before the General Association, was discussed by E. H. COOK and R. W. STEVENSON, of Ohio, W. A. BELL, of Indiana, R. A. STURGIS, of Indiana, P. A. POINTER, of Kentucky, Prof. E. S. JOYNES, of Tennessee, W. H. SCOTT, of Ohio, and Prof. W. R. WEBB, of Tennessee.

The following persons were elected officers for next year:

President.—E. T. TAPPAN, of Kenyon College, Ohio.

Vice-President.—E. S. JOYNES, of Vanderbilt University, Tenn.

Secretary.—HUGH BOYD, of Cornell College, Iowa.

Adjourned. .

Third Day's Proceedings.

THURSDAY, AUGUST 16, 1877.

Department met at 3 P. M. Prof. CASKIE HARRISON, of the University of the South, presented the following paper on

AMERICAN REVISION AND ADAPTATION OF FOREIGN TEXT-BOOKS.

The title of this paper is intended to exhibit the objective side of a subjective principle: the question that I shall attempt to investigate is the relation of American Methods and Standards to foreign Methods and Standards: and the conclusion I shall hope to establish is that American education has an individuality of its own, and that American educational machinery and attainments must be clearly distinguished from the machinery and attainments of foreign systems; and further that American adaptation and revision of foreign work has not only not introduced into American education elements which have proved successful elsewhere, but have actually diverted attention from the inevitable characteristics of American civilization; and, from an unintelligent admiration of everything foreign, have entailed evils which a careful scrutiny of our own needs would have rejected and a judicious self-reliance on our own efforts would have avoided.

It is my intention to be practical throughout: and it is not without full consciousness of my risk that I make this statement. Higher education and practical education are to each other Montague and Capulet; and in seeking

to ally them, I may find myself in the position of the unwary stranger, who thrusts his well-meant but ill-conceived intervention between mutually repellent man and wife. My hope is that the National Educational Association creates no antithesis between real utilitarianism and real education, but admits that materialism has true and honorable claims, which the most spiritual education within present human capacity must take as a body for itself, and which it cannot, without perilling its own existence, omit to recognize.

True utilitarianism—if the remark be not too hackneyed—finds its perfect expression and its perfect mechanism only in true education. Materialism lies at the bottom of all human institutions: sometimes it is more, sometimes it is less, always there is materialism. It is the object of education to reduce it to its minimum: but with education it goes in junction as close as that of the Siamese twins: mutual relation and control are inevitable: complete severance is death to both. Each is impatient of the other; yet only the existence of the one secures the existence of the other. Education requires attention: attention requires time: time requires provision: provision is materialism. If provision already exists, as inherited from preceding generations, the subsequent education of descendants is none the less really dependent upon materialism: if, as in the case of new civilizations, provision relies mainly upon individual exertion, the modifications which it enforces upon the character and extent of education cannot be overlooked. The physician who cures is not he who, denying that there is sickness, refuses medicine, or pretends to heal the sore, without sounding its deadly depths. In the consideration of this question, I have certain restrictions to make. Of course, it would not be possible, in the time allowed, to touch upon all the details of all the departments of teaching: nor indeed would this be necessary. It may be said in general that what is true of our relations in one direction, is true in all—at least so far as the leading principles are concerned—and with these only do we purpose now to deal. For obvious reasons, the extremes of those relations are manifested in the classics: in the exact studies, from their practical character, there is perforce less of method than of fact: there is in these subjects less in excess of the bare universal fact: there is more of agreement and harmony, and less that depends upon mere point of view: in the classics, on the other hand, there is necessarily a pervading uncertainty and vagueness as to what is to be taught now or at all; a growing confession of inability to draw forth all that the subjects contain; an open and candid avowal of the impossibility of unimpeachable decision in many discussions; a philosophic speculativeness on the theory and development of speech, which permit countless subjective modifications according to the standpoint of the student.—All this is more than enough to show that, as the greater includes the less, whatever is true of our foreign relations in the dead tongues must be, at least, generally correct in other departments.

But again; the relations are modified not only as to subject-matter, but also as to the party of the second part. The two countries which at present are most conspicuous in the investigation and pursuit of Latin and Greek are England and Germany. The former, in this discussion, we may virtually dispense with, and for these reasons: (1) what is English is not really for-

eign: the hereditary affinity of blood and the living affinity of tongue forbid us to regard our dealings with them as so distant, or our obligations to them as so unexpected: (2) in this department of study, our dealings with them are uncommon, and our obligations not coveted.

The class of opinions which I wish to oppose—with the modesty becoming to one whose knowledge of German still requires the interpreting aid of the Lexicon and Grammar—seems to maintain not only that whatever is German is right, but that there is one kind of infallibility whose sublime height Pius IX may never know, and that proud pinnacle has only room for German thought; and not only that what is English is wrong, but that there is one vast abyss of helpless, rayless ignorance, whose depths no plummet may sound, whose ample hold England alone hath senselessness and impotency to fill. This, if true, is appalling: but before we sit down in the ashes, while our sackcloth coat is making, let us spend a few brief moments in meditation.

First: what is right? To a body like this it is truistic to say that for us right is relative: absolute right and absolute truth are for us foolishness. There are two general aspects of relative right: one the relation of right ascertained and finite to right infinite and inconceivable: another the relation of right restricted by certain conditions of time, place, and circumstances, to the whole body of ascertained finite right. The former aspect is well enough understood: the wildest fanatic of the Germanesque School would not maintain that the land of his idolatry holds more than the thus far discovered fragments of ascertained truth. This position I do not now propose to discuss: for this has nothing to do with the gist of my argument. The second aspect of relative right is much more liable to confusion: not that the fact of gradations in the acquirement and comprehension of truth are not recognized, but that due value is not attached to the cause and propriety of such gradations and relations. No plea is here offered for the deficiencies and shortcomings of American education: the present faults are many and serious: the present attainments are insignificant and unsubstantial: the present paraphernalia is feeble and impotent: the present instruction is inadequate: of present scholarship there is next to none: of present development there is practically none. But all these are explicable, if not excusable: they are due to the irrationality of our standards. And here relative right of the second aspect comes in: and I maintain that whatever place Germany holds in the scale of right, that the phase of right which concerns the art of education in America has in fact, and must have in philosophy, a place that is only relative to, and not identical with, the same thing in Germany.

The first answer to all this is the cry of *Iconoclasm*: "it is deplorable to attempt to overturn the admirable results of the most advanced German scholarship." My reply is that, if what I am trying to break is only an image, instead of the reality which is preached to the people, it deserves to be broken; and again, that in fact I am doing nothing more than refuse—and not without proper appreciation in the abstract—the present of a bull, handsome it may be and thoroughbred, as a questionable ornament of my somewhat shaky china-shop—or in the more elegant language of the poet:

"Demens

Judicio volgi, sanus fortasse tuo, quod
Nollem onus haud unquam solitus portare molestum."

Ambition is beautiful: but who admires the persistence of the ingenuous youth whose toy-gun aspires to pierce the pallid moon? Loftiness of purpose is admirable: but who that strives to reach the vaulted heaven by builded pile hears not a Babel of contempt and scorn?

The Standards of American Higher Education are entirely suppositious: in the classics there is overmuch of artificial enthusiasm and unreal fervor: there is no adequate provision for the end ostensibly proposed; and conversely there is no respectable issue to accord with the inflated professions. And this is true, not only of the small colleges, but of the great Universities. The responsibility rests upon the Germanesques: and they can acquit themselves only by proving the present possibility of attaining the standard they say they set.

In all considerations there are certain necessary conditions, which act as a bed of Procrustes; and in American education this element appears in the shape of time. Call time merely a law of thought, and talk of the universal present and the absolute identity of existence—yet to the vast majority who give tone and character to the circumstances of life, through whom these circumstances react on others, actual succession and practical adjustment are things of positive reality. The sublimated and transcendental position is natural or possible only to him to whom succession is insignificant and adjustment universal: in the other the stages of hunger, appeased at rare intervals, and the progress of fatigue, from necessity now and then omitted, inculcate, beyond power of contradictory argument, the awful realism of succession and adjustment.

Time is capable only of certain distention: the theoretical Standards of American Higher Education in word attempt to blow the bubble beyond the strength of its materials.

It is in no spirit of ignoble concession to the claims of materialism that this is said. Yet these claims are real. Life requires, as its first condition, sustenance: this the newness and extent of our country, and the character of our people, make for the most part dependent upon individual exertion: besides this there is something, perhaps originally factitious, but now apparently inevitable, that prevents us from remaining satisfied with what will merely suffice: hence hardly is time allowed for the acquisition of all the leading principles of such capacious subjects as Latin and Greek, not to speak of the subsequent necessity for keeping alive and pushing on our knowledge when it is once obtained.

As well tell the starving beggar that he wants our religious consolation, as endeavor to convince a thinking American that his country can yet afford to dispense with all regard to practical results in the matter of education. There is no such thing as a purely intellectual education, where there is not a priesthood of men to attend to the perpetuation, for its own sake, of the Vestal fire: learning and scholarship are their own reward, and it is the truest luxury to be able to enjoy them. It would be deemed absurd for the poor ditcher to spend his accumulated earnings in a swallow-tail coat: yet some in departments which they make to be more vital,

urge the pursuit of something, which, if attained, would perforce languish for subsequent nurture and protection—which, as never attained, is a suicidal argument against itself—something which time, already distended to its utmost, bursts in the struggle to admit.

But there is no cause for despair: if our capabilities be found so great, when we are embarrassed by so many conflicting claims, who shall measure them when our environments become more favorable? At present, it should be the theory of American education, without aiming at a standard which requires too much concentration for the necessary versatility of our life, and too much time for the inevitable distractions of our life, to show that the truest utility is most general and least technical, and to connect everywhere the relations of life with the details of the educational system. It is absurd to suppose that the theory of education is something apart from life: there is for it positively no other *raison d'être*. Then it will follow that the term life must be taken relatively to country, civilization, etc., and that all essential elements must be regarded. Time is pre-eminently an essential element in American education. This may be unfortunate, but it is still real. The way to obviate it is by true educational advancement adjusted to the times: if these are out of joint, so must be the education. The club-footed man cannot wear straight boots: the orthopedic surgeon, by slow processes and judicious advancement, turns the deformity from nature's error to nature's model: we, wiser than our generation, clap on the orthodox shoe, smile at the victim's woe, decry the ignoble concession to physical weakness, and wrap ourselves in an impenetrable garment of foreign superiority.

America is not mature, nor should her education be mature. What father wants his boy to ape the fashions of a man? Yet *we* want America, which is, of course, in the sense of cultivated intellect, an infant, to essay the duties and promise the privileges of a sage. It is unnatural, and the effort has failed. The ideal standard is a wall-flower: she is never won, because never wooed—except as the boy sighs for his schoolmate's elder sister, who has darned his sock, or tied up his sore finger.

A national education is the resultant of national development: this each country must work out for itself: in a complex and growing country like ours, this must be complex and growing: various elements must contribute at various times and in various degrees: therefore any formulated system, however good, must act the part of the shoe that dwarfs into questionable beauty the Chinese lady's foot. It is, for example, too much the tendency of English civilization to produce complacency, isolation, and bigotry: there is in English institutions throughout, even in the extremest radicalism, a self-satisfaction which makes their very evils dearer to them than the advantages of other systems. Can *we* sympathize with this? If *we* are to feel a national self-satisfaction, what portion of us as a whole, is to wrest from the others the glory of the results: what detachment of us shall prevent the impure intrusion of Helotic adulteration? Does not our national complexity, constantly increasing, as it must, from a thousand tributaries, forbid the first condition of conservatism—a national communion, an unfluctuating centre, distinct and apart from the continuous accretions of foreign emigration? If our population is eclectic,

can our systems be simple, can our institutions be unmixed, can our life be unsympathetic, and can our education fail to be a compromise? It may be said of our people and our education, as STEINTHAL says of Language, "They are what they are becoming."

Again: it is too much the tendency of German Higher Education to run into specialties: it is this that makes Germany claim the place of leader in so many departments of thought: but the result is impractical. Can *we*, the body of the American people to be educated, afford as yet to ignore the element of practical use? Then to what does Physical Science owe its rapid strides? It is no answer to say that Germany leads in Physical Science too: the motive in Germany and the motive in America are distinct: there it is a study, here it exhibits chiefly the face of practical benefit. I have chosen to make prominent the apparently narrower, and perhaps less inviting view, because I wished to lay especial stress upon the mechanism of education. Nothing is truer than that the terms scholar—meaning the educated man, the master—and teacher are not co-extensive. Each is more and less than the other. The former is a certificate of certain mental development, exhibiting itself in power of reasoning and in elegance of cultivation: the latter is the guarantee of certain ability to utilize acquired discipline in the shaping of other minds. Their very natures are opposed: the scholar's mind is introspective; the essential of the teacher is objectivity: the former exists for himself: the latter belongs to others: the former works an easy-running engine that responds to his lightest touch: the latter has to deal with a machine whose parts are not adjusted to each other: the former's lot is possession, the latter's, administration. It is not more of a logical sequence that the scholar should be a teacher than that the inheritance of wealth should ensure systematic and comprehensive business capacity. It is not possible to state the case from the other side so strongly: yet it is quite conceivable that the teaching-power should exist in a high degree without a corresponding amount of what is properly termed scholarship. It is the general end of true education to create scholars: the chief element in the educational system is the teacher: hence, while it is by no means necessary that manipulation follows upon possession, no manipulation without possession is conceivable: nor is it possible to create scholars without exhibiting in oneself somewhat of scholarship.

But the whetstone sharpens, though it cannot cut: and he who possesses the teaching-faculty, though helpless chances have stopped his immediate progress, may, to a certain extent, within the measure of his own growth, if only his methods be accurate as far as they go, lay worthy foundation in others for advancement he does not well comprehend. To the young graduate, whose acquaintance with the classics is limited to the narrow round of the ordinary American university course, if his training has been such as to fix correct principles of classical study, though his attainments are not up to those of the Sixth Form in an English Public School, if he have this faculty, may serve to prelude in some exceptional pupil a flight of scholarship he is himself hardly able to foresee. The answer to this may be that here the merit lies with the pupil: but this is not the case. *Scholarly qualities* are not to be acquired by any Mastery Series: they

National Educational Association.

be evoked by personal contact with scholarly qualities, though these only in their incipency. But again, granting to the exceptional pupil the merit he deserves, the teacher's office is chiefly for those who fall under the rule. The business of education is reciprocal: all progress demands eventually upon the pupil: if boys and young men were willing to do their part of the treaty, the lecture-system would be the most expedient, as it is certainly the most comfortable. But personal growth requires personal meditation; and boys will not meditate: growth requires continuity, and boys will regard lessons as separate daily tasks: growth, to be symmetrical, requires a clear comprehension of the relations of the several members of the educational system, and boys do not comprehend, nor are they led to suppose, any such relations. Therefore, as one side there is a failure to comply with necessary conditions, there is inevitably more of care and labor thrown upon the other. The purveyor of education—if I may be pardoned for using so material a term—must not only lead his horse to the Castalian water, but he must endeavor to make him drink: the teacher must not only furnish the material, but he must superadd such methods as will compel or persuade or assist the pupil to perform the necessary mental processes. Hence the purveyor of education has a double relation: first he must have material to furnish, second he must know how to dispose of it: he must have his stock, and he must be able to administer it. It has been seen that these characteristics may exist independently, to a certain extent, and in various combinations. Now, if all this is true, it will be manifest at once that the purveyor of education stands in two distinct relations to learning at large—to abstract and infinite, to finite and concrete, right and truth. It is, of course, his unceasing duty to advance: there is no such thing in mental work as merely holding one's own: for though we stand fast, the world goes on, and beyond. Hence, as methods are affected by material, he who hopes merely to be a teacher, without thought of scholarship, must every day become less and less satisfactory even in his chosen line. In this the purveyor of education holds a close connection with the whole body of discovered truth, with, it is to be hoped, some aspiration toward the exhuming of buried truth. Hence he should be well-read in the recent advances in his own studies, and he should watch the reaction of them upon his modes of thought and interpret them into methods of practical utility. But it is not to be supposed that all the progress in any given department, which his matured and disciplined mind demands, shall directly enter as component parts into the machinery of his school-instruction. "All is in all," says the French proverb: and necessarily the least particle of intellectual development in the administrator of education will impress itself in visible forms upon his practice: but only the resultant of his work is fit for the work of his pupils: the reading and reflection of his nights and days may for them be interpreted in a word; yet it is none the less valid for being indirect, nor can he be justly charged with "ignorant vituperation of foreign progress," because he cannot think it advisable to substitute final elegance for preliminary facts.

Therefore, if it is shown that American education has an individuality of its own, it will follow that it is in the capacity of scholar, and not in the

P
o
a
sac
ther
is co
a bre
them
educa
nunci
of ed
nece
tain
tat
lit
I
i

Capacity of teacher, that the administrator of education in America has, primarily, to do with foreign progress.

American education is not yet for the making of scholars. In the classics, the graduates of our best universities are hardly familiar with the facts of Syntax. Is it not as absurd to talk of refinement and elegance, without antecedent knowledge of the perhaps less common but equally important principles, as to admire a man whose ruffled shirt lies under an unwashed face?

And so it seems to me with the question of Latin pronunciation. No student can hesitate to admit the validity of the Roman Method: yet I for one do not believe that it is wise to insist upon it in our schools. Latin and Greek, in my judgment, for many years are to be valued in America as means and not ends: and I think that better, as well the more obvious, discipline, since time compels us to make selection, is afforded by the philosophical discussion of the Syntax, together with grammatical and rhetorical composition, and as much as possible of literary cultivation, than from the merely philological side: if there is room for more than the first alternative, there is great responsibility upon those who, insisting upon so much, present so little. With none of the aims in my view, is Pronunciation concerned: as an essential of abiding scholarship, it is, of course, to be presumed; as a part of a system whose details are perforce at once forgotten, I can see no advantage in it that is not gained by the sacrifice of more. I know what I risk in saying this: I know too that there are schools of wide reputation where the results of years and money is comprised in a bad picture, or music enough to murder sleep, or dancing a breakdown. Who will deny all use to these? Yet who will claim for them all use? Facts are hard things. If it can be proved that American education is so far advanced that the classics are exhausted save in pronunciation, or that pronunciation deserves a higher place in the scheme of educational assessments than I have given to it, either in itself, or as necessary to the use and maintenance of something that is used and maintained, I am open to conviction:—but so long as I see the pupils of institutions at which this method is said to be insisted on, unable to read five lines of Virgil intelligently or intelligibly by any system of pronunciation, I cannot believe in its efficiency; and so long as I find them shamefully ignorant of the fundamental laws of construction, I shall distrust its expediency.

I do not wonder at the deficiencies of our pupils in the classics: I believe that it must be so from the nature of things. But though I understand it, I am not willing for it to continue: what we cannot entirely obviate now, we can gradually correct. Let the advance be slow, but not less sure: let our standards be set more rationally than at present—standards which, lower than the hypothetical forms affected in certain directions, shall yet furnish results proportionately higher than our present attainments. The general principle of the adjustment of standards I take to be this: the standard by which the success of any system is to be tested is the greatest possibility which can be attained by that system under the most favorable circumstances. The standard must be possible to the system: else we should be but attempting to gather grapes of thorns or figs

of thistles. It must be the greatest possibility under the most favorable circumstances; for this guarantees that the standard shall always to the very last be in front, and prevent all risk of anti-climax or supersedure, which would arise from easy and ordinary attainment, if the standard were fixed at the greatest average possibility, or the greatest possibility under average circumstances, or the greatest probability.

American Higher Education ostensibly sets a standard greatly beyond its possibilities—and it virtually confesses the deception: for, while it theoretically maintains the standard, it practically stultifies itself by the constant acceptance of results which are ridiculous responses to its haughty demands. This is a fatal error: for as it is worse not to require obedience to a law, however nefarious, when once it is passed, so is it death to anything like regularity and accuracy in education to call magniloquently for a fish and accept with complacency a stone.

But, it may be replied, is it not possible to educate people up to a standard? And can we not, on this principle, at once adopt standards equal to the highest of foreign standards? The answer must not be precipitate. For in the first place it is to be said that it is possible, but that the modifications are many. Education requires, as its first condition, attention; attention requires the rejection of distracting influences. And so the poet says:

*Magnae mentis opus nec de lodice paranda
Attonitae, currus at equos faciesque deorum
Aspicere, et qualis Rutulum confundat Erinny.*

It is cool poverty that holds our breasts, which do not suffer a double care.

Again: while it is true that the mere fact of presenting a thing often to the mind extracts a certain amount of involuntary cerebration; and that the mere notion of something higher and better unconsciously tends to elevate; and finally that the highest education is the freest and purest, and even, ultimately, the most practical, and that it is well, of course, to turn the thoughts of a people to this as early as possible. Still here, too, there are conditions. Human institutions are not protoplasmic: they must have a creator and guide, and they must have an economy. Where are these to come from for *us*? The progress of such education as foreign wealth and foreign antiquity have developed requires time and money: with *us* who has the time and money? The elements may be pooh-poohed, but they cannot be argued away.

Yet is there one means of keeping open the vista before the eyes of our young land. Let the JOHNS-HOPKINS UNIVERSITY by all means keep the position it has assumed: let it furnish, if it may, a tone and volume of education beyond which no foreign systems can rise: let us each encourage his pupils to pass on to such a seat of learning: and let us demand from it results worthy of a GILDERSLEEVE. But alas! there is a skeleton in this closet: if it had not been for one wealthy Quaker, where would be this University? And what proportion of its expenses do its receipts cover? And how long could it live on public patronage? And why are its Trustees so long in filling its full Professorships? And why did the VANDERBILT decline to assume this questionable height? And why do so many of the so few real scholars of the country languish so long on such contemptible wages?

These enquiries have but one answer. The causes we may gradually hope to remove: but who can hurry the growth of the plant? White pantaloons are beautiful, but he who dons them when the ground lies deep in snow is not considered a paragon of prudence. Where private and independent means will provide, let our advantages be the best: but where we are dependent upon any class of judges, however incompetent, let us settle upon such educational paraphernalia as we can persuade them to approve, or at least to test. We put the laws of diction upon this platform: we put the laws of government upon this platform: we put the general truths of religion upon this platform.—Why not also the laws of education?

Now I maintain that the judges have virtually decided that the present extent of classical cultivation must be small: moreover I maintain that, in general terms, their judgment is, under all the circumstances, competent and necessary.

The very expression, educate the people up to a standard, confesses the justice of my position. Admitting that the only standard with which we should finally be satisfied is the whole mass of ascertained truth, are we to have no goal for the limit of present possible attainments? If we are able at once to reach the limit of present ascertained truth, nothing is necessary but the inspiration of present desire: here is education up to the standard: to be real, this desire must be intelligent: if ascertained truth can now be appreciated as a whole, there is no reason to educate up to it: if it is not comprehensible at once, we cannot obviously make use of it as a limit of desire: education to it is a process: each added degree brings us locally and logically nearer to the standard ultimately and originally assumed: but must not the several steps, each as long as the then existing mental elasticity permits, be in itself a temporary standard; and is not the final standard but a preliminary stage in the whole field of infinite truth? For truth is an ever-rising tide, and before the army of students can drink dry its stream, the torrent has swollen, and the rushing waters have gone forever past.

From this is apparent, it seems to me, the necessity of relative standards: relative standards depend upon some point of reference, and this point of reference is dependent upon varying conditions, and is, therefore itself variable. It is obvious that there can be no systematic progress without unbroken continuity: continuity in education must be rational: therefore progress in education requires intelligent appreciation at every stage of each succeeding stage: therefore every standard is dependent upon the present intellectual scope of the national civilization.

My plea, then, is that we openly, as we must secretly, recognize a difference between the relative standards which are proper to our conditions and reasonable to our methods, and those which accord with foreign systems and foreign attainments. Not that we are to rest content with this or any stopping-place: only let us confess that our existing régime furnishes no adequate provision for an immediate stage so extended and remote as that secured by the already attained position of foreign education.

Thus will discouragement and defeat be avoided. The student performs in a day or a week or a month what he has assigned to that time, and a vast distance, that he could not at first and at once precisely define, he has broken into conceivable and conquerable fragments.

The ultimate aim is Naked Truth: the progress is by gradual ascertainment, each stage of which is that far a limit; the adjustment of these relative standards, which practical purposes demand, depends upon conditions, and is variable: the limit of ascertained truth moves off, and these relative standards increase in number and position.

For this theory there is divine precedent. The model of the Christian life assumes an infinite inaccessibility; and almost intuitively human standards are created, much lower even than the natural conception of the Son of Man, according to which Christians judge their fellows and are judged by them—and in the face of the Scriptural assertion that none is good, we hear this attribute in its relative meaning applied by those whose exemplar is the sublime beauty of him in whose mouth guile was not found.

In what I have said I have nowhere meant to lose sight of the fact that national civilization is no less dependent upon education than education upon national civilization. But I am not now speaking of the effects of education, but of the condition of its character and existence. National civilization bears the same relation to education on the one side as to materialism on the other: the two are necessary components of national civilization: in their struggle now one conquers, now the other, and so is national civilization tempered.

Education has often stemmed the torrent of radicalism and held in check the elements of disintegration and despair: but I am here speaking of progressive education towards a heightening standard; and education when it serves as an equipoise, is not then progressing, though by its conquest it often gains a mighty impulse.

Education must be individual; that is, it must be spontaneous: to be spontaneous, it must be intelligent: to be intelligent, it must not fix a goal that is incomprehensible at its present position: therefore, the administrators of our educational scheme, for the attainment of their final goal—the whole mass of ascertained truth—must mark out each progressive preliminary standard as shall severally be intelligible and attainable from their respective points of view.

This, I maintain, the constant talk about German thought tends to confuse. It conveys the idea that American Education is nothing, because it is not German, and that nothing can be right at all, that is not entirely right. I think it cannot be denied that there is some justice in the views thus far advanced upon the individual character of American education. This individuality has been attributed to the following general causes: (1) the youth of the country precludes the existence of a traditional spirit of culture and prevents accumulated learning: (2) the lack of inherited wealth entails the necessity for early individual exertion: (3) the complexity of population compels something of a democratic compromise in almost all our institutions: and (4) to a certain extent the existence of the thing is its own best apology.

That these will regulate themselves is patent: youth will become age, culture will grow into self-perpetuating tradition, and learning will increase its stores: wealth will be amassed and transmitted, and exertion will be less personal: complexity will grow into unity and compromise

will cease to order action. This is all true: but these things are not now, and we must so administer the present as most speedily to develop the desired future.

If my argument is sound, it will be readily granted that the paraphernalia of American education should be especially adjusted to its ends. It is laughable to see a child in his father's clothes; and the machinery of foreign education cannot immediately suit the inevitable American systems. The teacher, as the head of this machinery, should thoroughly comprehend the road he is to travel, the gait he is to go, the place he is to stop, the freight he has to carry, and the nature and value of his means of transportation. Our first evil is here: the foreign teacher and our teacher are not the same. The foreign teacher with a better machine needs not to do so much personal drudgery: the American teacher should make up for other defects by his own efficiency. But it is not so: the American teacher is too often no professional, but a lame layman, who has no idea of his subject, of his book, of his pupils, or of the peculiarities of his country's civilization. Or, even if he does know all these, he finds it easier to lecture than to teach: the American student needs teaching, not lecturing. The lecture no more penetrates him than the rain pierces the back of the puddle-duck: the American student wants rubbing, hard and dry, with a stiff brush.

Again, the books should be such as to suit the special conditions. Now the question arises, whether the individuality of American education is best met by specially prepared works, or by the so-called adaptation and revision of foreign publications.

In the first place—allowing for the necessary interdependence of scholars all over the world, and for the proportionately greater debt which America has to incur on the side of the scholar—it still seems to me that there is room for self-reliance in the use of our own properly-trained and developed mental powers.

Again, what is foreign is too apt through its mere unfamiliarity to seem magnificent: or its admitted superiority in the department of learning is likely to be mistaken for the most practicable medium of teaching: for the teacher's and the scholar's are different faculties. This tends to produce an unfortunate confusion from which it is hard to escape. The habit of looking abroad makes us too farsighted to see anything at home, and this constantly increases what we are expected to outgrow: for the same persons who enjoin filial reverence to Germany, deprecate a continuance of American infancy.

Thirdly: we are more likely to keep before us the American point of view in composing special and original works, so far as the mode of presentation goes, than when obliged constantly to distinguish between our own and foreign standpoints, which often amounts to entirely recasting or virtually abandoning the foreign author, or else practically rejecting the individuality of the American point of view.

That there is truth in this can, I think, be readily shown from an examination of specimens of American adapted and revised publications. This discussion I shall divide as follows:

A. Choice of books: (1) General subject-matter: (2) Special mode of presentation.

B. Adaptation and Revision: (1) Adaptation: (a) Omission—(b) addition: (2) Revision, *i. e.*, correction.

I have not here considered it necessary to discriminate between professed adaptations and revisions and virtual adaptations and revisions. The differences may vary in species or in degree, but the genus is the same. No edition with Smith's name on the title-page, and a list of 25 or 30 commentators, which have been well called *dedicated*, is not more Smith's than is Smith's Jones's edition: it is only Smith's Jones's Brown's Robinson's to the n^{th} edition, and so Smith's proportion becomes mathematically less to infinity. No editor can afford to be ignorant of the work of his predecessors, or not to profit by those fittest ones who have survived: but he must find some ground for himself that they have not worked, or some new way to work the old. If he only gathers fragments from them and binds them with the feeble thread of a feeble name, he has no right to the credit that is by mistaken judgment too often assigned to him.

It gives me great pleasure to cite Professor GILDERSLEEVE's *Justin Martyr* and *Persius* as examples of due recognition of preceding labors with proper sense of personal responsibility. In both books the American Editor exhibits his individuality everywhere: his notes to *Justin Martyr* are chiefly grammatical and historical: the grammatical notes are mainly syntactical, as they should be in such an edition; and I am happy to find my own judgment sustained by Prof. GILDERSLEEVE's plan of giving explanatory formulæ, instead of references, which are sure to be ignored; and while he owes much to his predecessors, he has not considered it superfluous to examine original sources, nor has he been content merely to copy others. And in the Preface to his *Persius* he writes: "My personal contributions to the elucidation of *Persius* are too slight to warrant me in following the prevalent fashion and cataloguing the merits of my work under the modest guise of aims and endeavors. I shall be content, if I have succeeded in making *Persius* less distasteful to the general student; more than content, if those who have devoted long and patient study to this most difficult author shall accord me the credit of an honest effort to make myself acquainted with the poet himself as well as with his chief commentators."

This is not intended as a panegyric on one whom no panegyric from me could reach: but in the midst of such wholesale strictures I cannot resist the opportunity for expressing my admiration; and I believe that the National Educational Association has nothing to lose in the contemplation.

Prof. GILDERSLEEVE's Latin Syntax is the most beautiful linguistic philosophy, logically developed in such English as few can write: his Exercise-Book is his in all essentials—an elegant preparation for genuine Latin idiom: his Latin Reader is such a reality as I have idealized: his Primer has a charming freshness of its own.

Now I take up my syllabus.

A. The choice of books, as made by American adapters and revisers, is, in many cases, I think, due to a misunderstanding of objects and conditions.

(1.) Treatises on *Orthography* and *Pronunciation* must appeal to a very limited circle: the subjects they touch belong to a later period of language-

culture, and one that our cramped curriculum cannot yet receive, while the pressing duties of life that seize us when we take our collegiate degrees preclude us from following up the classics to their point of junction. We must be content to take the authority of our texts for Latin Orthography—and here we can take the German's researches, unrevised and unadapted. Fortunately, the disciplinary study of syntactical philosophy, which I take to be the main element of classical study for Americans, is not much affected by this matter. Something of Orthography must belong to the beginner's course, but the separate investigation of its details must be reserved for a period when the general basis is laid and when opportunity is offered for more special training.

On the matter of *Pronunciation* I have expressed myself elsewhere. I have no objection to something of the theory: the practice speaks for itself.

Again, Comparative Philology cannot enter directly into the courses of our Universities, though something of its results must be used as a basis for any scientific discussion of the Accidence. No considerations can outweigh the argument of time; and it would seem that I cannot be the only one who holds these sentiments, since I have for four years seen announced as forthcoming a Comparative Grammar which has not come forth yet.

By all means, if authors can be found to afford it, let these books be rendered accessible: let the student who can, buy them; let the teacher, the master, the scholar, be held responsible for full knowledge in all these departments; but do not attempt to force them on the ordinary course of the ordinary College. It is impossible for the student to profit by them, in view of the unlimited demands upon his limited time: it is impossible also for him to profit much by the instruction of an instructor, who, as is too often the case, is uninstructed in the subjects of his instruction. If advancement is to begin at the top, it must begin with the teacher; and I maintain that no more can be expected from American education without a wider interval between the attainments of the teacher and those of the pupil. It is folly to superadd subjects to which the teacher has not yet grown: let him be first required to march to them, and then look to the pupil.

(2.) Again, in the case of subjects which are proper to our system, not unfrequently objectionable forms of presentation are used for adaptation and revision.

Not a few editions, which have no treatment of a philosophical or syntactical character, nor anything which our education seems to demand, have been put out in American shape: and there are some grammatical works whose meagreness can never serve for the strong diet that our systems must crave in this direction.

My idea is that the edition of an author, for American use, must furnish a pro rata for all classical in all departments. Our systems do not yet allow the extensive purchase of books of reference, and we must make our text-books as far as possible compromise between knowledge and ignorance. These editions do not perform: biography, history, antiquities, to some extent, they elucidate; the literary features they hardly touch; and grammatical references are poor methods of teaching Syntax.

And, further, treatises on Etymology should give more than a few paradigms, with fewer general observations. There should be lists of words for practice; and where these are exhaustive, it should be explicitly stated: the agreements and disagreements of individual details should be specified; exceptions should be full and complete; laws of doubtful validity should be set forth doubtfully: everything that is necessary to a thorough comprehension of all the forms of the language should be expressly declared and nothing essential left to inference.

B. I now come to consider such details of adaptation and revision as concern the work itself. What is undertaken may be quoted from a recent prospectus: "This edition is based on the third ——— edition of ———: the principal changes consist of the addition of frequent references to ——— Grammars are, the omission of some references to parallel passages, and the correction of a few errors."

These are the *principal* changes: the other changes are left to the taste and fancy of the imagination!

(1.) Here it will be seen that the adaptation consists of addition and omission.

(a) The addition appears in frequent references to Grammars; on which I have to remark, first, that such additions are of little practical value, because they are either not used or not understood; and, secondly, that, in this special edition, the explanation of the note and the explanation of the Grammar are sometimes inconsistent, and yet no comment is made.

(b) The omission consists of some references to parallel passages: it is perhaps necessary to be sparing of such illustration, but it is unfortunate: in my judgment it would be better to translate the quoted passages than omit them, or at least effect a compromise.

(2.) The revision consists of the correction of a few errors. I have not the original foreign author by me, but I can see that there are errors left which the American editor should have corrected for the foreigner, if he undertakes to revise him, or ought never to have altered for himself, if he is responsible for them. This edition is said to be prepared with great care, and yet it shows obvious marks of blind carelessness: the text may, as is claimed, be worthy of acceptance; but the notes are full of false doctrine, ignorant criticism, and unappreciative dullness.

And so we may take them up, one after another, and in almost all the same faults are conspicuous. I had almost said that I would undertake to illustrate every possible blunder in Latin and Greek from American adapted and revised editions: perhaps this is too sweeping: I am certain, however, that it is easy to establish the absence, in these ventures, of all the higher qualities that pertain to scholarly editorship.

There is a pernicious contagion in this system of adaptation and revision: it encourages the worst sort of hack work, which is in itself enough to smother anything like scholarly life struggling out amongst us. There seems to be an irresistible temptation for anybody, everybody, without regard to anything but the opportunity and the suggestion, to undertake the reproduction of a foreign edition, the whole responsibility being thrown upon the original, the whole merit of success being retained as a lien by the adapter, through those mysterious, non-committal allusions to

changes, which leave so much room to the public for admiring conjecture and to the American editor for unscathed retreat.

In conclusion, I repeat my conviction that a full recognition of the conditions of American education would discountenance the attempt at direct adaptation of foreign books: our eyes would be fixed upon ourselves and our minds upon what is good for ourselves: self-reliance would be engendered, without, at the same time, a lack of familiarity with or a proper regard for the general results of foreign systems, or a disregard for their advantages. Ignorance and contempt of our own necessary peculiarities will ever retard our progress, and indiscriminate acceptance of foreign ways and means cannot produce for us even the effects for which they are valuable elsewhere.

The President, E. T. TAPPAN, next read Pres. NOAH PORTER's paper, printed with the first day's proceedings.

The following report was presented but not read:—

EXPLANATION.—A part of the German words in this paper were written by Prof. RADDATZ in German characters. For want of German type the printer has been compelled to use the Latin, or English type. The German letters are derivatives of the old Latin letters, their complicated forms being due to "the ingenuity of monkish scribes of the Middle Ages." Although these letters were in general use in Europe at the time of the invention of printing they have been discarded by one nation after another for the simpler and more readily distinguished characters which we call Roman but which the Germans call Latin (*lateinisch*). Many German books are now printed in Latin characters, among which may be mentioned the great German Dictionary of JACOB and WILHELM GRIMM, the first volume of which was printed in 1854. The six volumes which at this date are nearly completed extend only through words beginning with K. Since the death of JACOB GRIMM, in September, 1863, WILHELM having died in 1859, the work has been continued by Dr. RUDOLF HILDEBRAND, Dr. KARL WEIGAND, and Dr. MORIZ HEYNE. Although the Latin letters are preferable to the German yet some of the peculiarities of the German letters are not represented by the Latin letters, as the long *s* which differs slightly from an *f*. In German type *ch*, *ck*, *sz* (long *s*), *tz*, are each cast on a single type. There is but one character for the German capital *S*. For want of the long *s* (*f* or *f*) the printer has used for it in German words printed in Italics the Roman short *s*, and in German words printed in Roman letters Italic short *s* has been used. In a few places where it seems absolutely necessary the printer has attempted to indicate the German long *s* by cutting off the cross mark from both sides of the Italic *f* and from the right side of the Roman *f*, thus restoring the discarded long *s* of the English alphabet, which was merely a modified form of *f* and *f*. For want of sorts the printer has been compelled, on account of the number of dotted *a*'s, *o*'s, and *u*'s, to use in part the full original form *ae*, *oe*, *ue*, forms which the Conference condemned, preference being given to the dotted *ä*, *ö*, and *ü*. In order to avoid printing *ae*, *oe*, and *ue* for dotted *ä*, *ö*, and *ü* the press was stopped and an order sent to the type foundry for the umlaut or dotted letters, but the characters not being in stock word came back that it would take a week to make them. The determination to get the volume out earlier than usual has induced me to proceed with the printing and not wait for the type. It is hoped that these explanations will make the paper plain to the reader.—*W. D. Henkle.*

The motion made by Mr. RADDATZ, of Baltimore City College, at the last meeting of the National Educational Association, in 1876, in Baltimore, that in view of the recommendations of the Berlin Conference regarding German orthography adopted to a great extent in Germany, twelve instructors in German, including Professors WHITNEY and JOYNES, be appointed to draw up a report for the information and guidance of American publishing firms in their future editions of German text-books, was amended by Prof. JOYNES, so as to make the number of instructors three instead of twelve which would make a result in the premises, owing to quicker communication with each other, more easily attainable. The Association appointed Professors WHITNEY, JOYNES, and RADDATZ, as a committee. The committee having communicated with each other, Mr. RADDATZ was requested by the other two gentlemen to draw up a report, embodying the views concurred in.

Experience has shown how reluctant people are to drop time-honored usages, it might therefore be of interest to know who the gentlemen in Germany are that range themselves on the side of this spelling reform. The conference, composed of the following eminent Germanists, was called together by the Secretary for education in the German Empire, Dr. FALK, and met in Berlin, on the 4th of January, 1876, to the 15th inclusive :

- * Dr. VON RAUMER,—Erlangen,
- “ WILLMANN,—Greifswald,
- “ SCHERER,—Straszbürg,
- “ BARTSCH,—Heidelberg,
- “ IMELMAND,—Berlin,
- “ KRAZ,—Stuttgart,
- “ SANDERS,—Alt-Strelitz,
- “ FROMMANN,—Nürnberg,
- “ DUDEN,—Schleiz,
- “ KUHN,—Berlin,
- “ KLIX,—Berlin,
- “ TÖCHE,—Berlin, (delegate from the
German Publishers' Association.)
- † Mr. BERTRAM,—Halle, (delegate from the
German Printers' Association.)

Dr. HILDEBRAND, of Leipzig, was invited, but by reason of sickness could not be at the meetings. Besides these gentlemen Drs. GREIFF, WAETZOLDT, SCHNEIDER, GÖPPERT, BONITZ, STAUDER, and General VON RHEINBABEN, Inspector of military schools, were present. The two papers on “ Rules for German orthography ” of Dr. VON RAUMER formed the basis for discussion.

The first point for debate by the conference was the indication of long and short vowels in German words. The works of GOTTSCHED, ADELUNG, BECKER, and later that excellent grammarian, KARL HEYSE, have been the guide in this matter in Europe as well as in America, since their grammars and dictionaries have had the most extensive use in Germany

* Died last year. † Died last year. The cause of orthographic reform in Germany has suffered a severe loss in the death of these two gentlemen.

(cf. JOLLY, *Schulgr. u. Sprachw.*) With their rules as regards the indication of short vowels (cf. BECKER, *Schulgram.*, pp. 43, 60, 632, HEYSE, *Lehrb.* vol. I., 175, 218) the conference on the whole agreed, with the exception of the syllable *Wall* in *Wallfisch*, *Wallrat*, *Wallross*, *Wallnuss*, of the words *Zimmt*, *Sammt*, the preposition *sammt* and its derivatives *sämtlich*, *insgesammt* and of the suffixes *inn* and *niss*. They recommended to spell them with a single consonant, thus *Walfisch*, *Walrat*, *Walross*, *Walnuss*, *Zimt*, *Samt*, *sämtlich*, *insgesamt*, *in*, *nis*. The Rule which explains this action of the conference says: The short vowel in stems ending in a single consonant followed by a less accented syllable that commences with a vowel, is indicated by geminating the consonant and the stems retain this geminated consonant *always*, e. g., *Kammes*, *Kamm*, *fallen*, *fällt*, *Falltür*, etc. However the syllable *Wal* in *Walnuss*, etc., like the *Him*, *Brom*, *Dam*, in *Himbeere*, *Brombeere*, *Damwild*, which words, by the way, nobody pretends to spell with a double consonant, represents an obscure stem that does not occur before suffixes that commence with a vowel, hence does not come under the rule. This syllable *Wal* should not be mistaken for the *Wall* in *Wallfahrt* or the *Wal* in *Walkyre*, *Walhalla*. Why these two last words with certainly the same etymology should be spelt differently from each other as some of our American school dictionaries have it is hard to tell. The words *Zimt* and *Samt* follow the syllable *Wal*. We have no stems *Zimm* and *Samm* that by inflection could form other words. The stem in the preposition *samt* may occur as followed by a less accented syllable that commences with a vowel, e. g., *beisammen*, *sammeln* but goes with the rule "A vowel is generally short when followed by two or more different consonants" (HEYSE, *Lehrbuch*, vol. I., p. 176) besides we have such analogies as *Gestalt* (*stellen*), *Geschäft* (*schaffen*), *Gespinnst* (*spinnen*), etc. The spelling *in* and *nis* with one consonant is according to rule. They are suffixes, not stems, and furthermore agree with the rule that in suffixes the short vowel is generally not indicated unless followed by another less accented inflexion beginning with a vowel. Thus *Königin* but *Königinnen*, *Ereignis* but *Ereignisse*, *Ilis* but *Ilisse* which is the spelling adopted by the principal lexicographers of Germany (cf. GRIMM, WEIGAND, SANDERS).

In the indication of long vowels the conference recommended considerable change. According to general rule (cf. HEYSE, *Schulgram.*, p. 8, BECKER, *Schulgram.*, p. 43) all diphthongs and most stem vowels either final or before a single consonant are long. But besides these indications the German language employs three other methods.

1. By geminating the vowel.
2. By a mute *e* after the vowel (only with the vowel *i*).
3. By a mute *h* before or after the vowel,

and this last is by far the most customary indication. All three are often used very arbitrarily (cf. HEYSE, *Lehrbuch*, vol. I., p. 219) and are no sure guide to a proper pronunciation and spelling for an American student. In some cases he finds the long vowel indicated, in others not, and German orthography becomes a troublesome memorizing of exceptions destitute of all sound reasons for them (cf. SCHLEICHER, *Deutsche Sprache*). Let us take for instance the first and general rule which says, all diphthongs and

most stem vowels followed by a single consonant are long and give as an example to our pupils the words *heil* and *Span* which he no doubt will find simple enough, but the trouble is, that the very next day he might stumble upon words like *Theil* and *Wahn* with exactly the same pronunciation. He will then naturally ask the use of the *h* in these words and perhaps in the first one account for it by pronouncing the *th* like his own aspirate. But we tell him that besides the general rules regarding the indication of a long vowel the German very often employs one of the three others mentioned above in addition, thus, as it were, indicating the long vowel twice and that before the liquids *l*, *m*, *n*, *r*, the inorganic *h* is generally used for this purpose. This he will understand in *Theil* and *Wahn*, but why asks he do we not write *Spahn* as well. He now is told that besides other exceptions, long vowels when preceded by two or more consonants (with some exceptions also) do not take this *h*. Our friend might now demur at the position of the *h* in *Theil*. He would like to see it in its proper position, that is after the vowel which it is to lengthen, but that he learns he must not always expect. The *h* is not separated from the *t* and must always stand after it. Thus *That* and *Thun*, *Drqth* and *Nath* (with the *h* organic in the last named) not *Taht*, *tuhn*, *Draht*, *Naht* (cf. HEYSE, *Schulgram.* p. 37). This at the very next occasion, he sees contradicted in the two last and other words of the kind, which as often have the *h* before the *t* (cf. GRIMM, WEIGAND, SANDERS, BECKER *Schulgram.* p. 631). We perhaps now mention for his special elucidation, that with precisely the same pronunciation we spell words like *roth*, *rothe* with an *h*, but *Bot*, *Bote* without it and that *Thurm* and *Wirth* with a decidedly short vowel have nevertheless an inorganic *h*.

From this erratic use of the inorganic *h* it is liable to be sometimes mistaken by the pupil for the *h* historically belonging to the word. The rule to prevent this seems by no means clear even to the advanced pupil, although perhaps the best that could be given under the circumstances. It says: The *h* before liquids may generally be looked upon as an indication of a long vowel, but where it seems to conflict with this, it is commonly an original, organic letter belonging to the stem (cf. HEYSE).

But is the pupil aware of the contraction or elimination that certain words or letters have experienced in the course of time? For instance in *Zähre*, *Aehre*, *Mohn*, *Dohle*, *zehn*, etc., that have the *h* organic followed by a liquid. This requires in some cases a knowledge of the earlier stages of the language, a knowledge out of the question with him, when very good teachers of German do not always have it.

The geminating of a vowel to lengthen it is only used with the *a*, *e*, *o*. Their respective modifications and the vowels *i* and *u* are never doubled, require therefore some other sign (mute *e* or *h*) when lengthened. A great many inroads have been made into the sanctity of this spelling, for words like *Schaf*, *Schale*, *Samen*, and others were not long ago written with the radical doubled, while some like the adjective *baar* or *baar*, etc., are in a state of transition and the pupil may choose either (cf. HEYSE, BECKER, GRIMM, WEIGAND, SANDERS). The long *i* is indicated in some cases by an *h* but more generally by a succeeding mute *e*, in this position according to our present pronunciation in all cases but an orthographical help to dis-

tinguish the long quantity of the former. Even this method shows inconsistencies in number, thus we write *ihr* but *mir*, *Igel* but *Siegel*, etc. After due consideration of the important condition that the new orthography should show clearly and unmistakably the correct and customary pronunciation, the conference recommended:

To drop under all circumstances the indication of a long vowel by any special letter in all syllables containing the vowels *a*, *o*, *u*, and their respective modifications * with the exception of the words *der*, *Ahn*, *fahnden*, *das Boot*, *die Uhr*, *der Ruhm* to distinguish them from *an*, *fanden*, *das Bot* (summons), *der Ur*, the prefix *ur* and *der Rum*. In the words *allmählig*, *Bühl*, *Ohm*, *nahm*; *Ausnahme*, *Masznahme*, *stahl*, *stiehlt*, *Diebstahl*, *befahl*, *befiehlt*, *empfahl*, *mahlen*, *Mühle*, *Mahd*, *Draht*, *Naht*, the *h* was retained to show their relation to *gemach*, *Büchel*, *Oheim*, *nehmen*, *stehlen*, *Befehl*, *Mehl*, *mähen*, *drehen*, *nähen*, that have the *h*.

Really a number of these exceptions might have been dispensed with, for in several analogous cases the conference apparently did not hesitate the least to abolish all distinction to the eye, e. g., *Tor* (fool), *Tor* (gate), *Ton* (sound), *Ton* (clay), *Tau* (rope), *Tau* (dew), etc. The tendency to drop such orthographical distinctions had shown itself long before the meeting of the conference. Nobody writes at present *seyn* (to be) to distinguish it from *sein* (his), besides we do not seem to be disturbed by such similarity of words in other languages, Latin *frons* (forehead), *frons* (leaf of a tree); French *son* (sound), *son* (bran), etc., where their connection in the sentence readily gives the explanation (cf. GRIMM). To understand the steps of the conference in this direction, let us look at the rules that governed them.

Syllables are either accented or unaccented. Thus in *Hochzeiten* we have *Hoch* with the full, *zeit* with the demi-accent and *en* unaccented. With few exceptions, the stem syllable in simple German words has the full accent and nearly all inflexions are unaccented. In compound words each component keeps its accent, the first as the modifier has the full accent. Thus in *Blumengarten*, *Blum* has the full accent, *en* as an inflexion is unaccented and *Garten* has the demi-accent. In the present High German accented syllables are long, unaccented short, the length of the former occurring either in a long vowel or if that be short in a doubled consonant following the short vowel, e. g., *Blumen*, *summen*. The vowels *a*, *o*, *u*, and their modifications occur with very few exceptions only in accented syllables and are long when followed by a single, short when followed by a double consonant.

The few words conflicting with this we find among monosyllables like *was*, *das*, and the particles *an*, *von*, *ab*, *um*, etc., nevertheless there are certainly not many grammatical dicta of such magnitude that show as few exceptions (cf. RAUMER, *Regeln*).

The vowels *i* and *e* occurring frequently in unaccented syllables (inflexions, etc.) as short vowels, it was maintained that the same sweeping rule could not be given, the conference retained therefore with these two vow-

* In the words *Schuhe*, *Küche*, *Floche*, *Strohes*, *Viehe*, *Geweide*, *zaeh*, *nahe*, *froher*, *frueher*, *roher*, *rauh*, *floche* (*flichen*) the *h* is no indication of the length of the vowel but a sound distinctly pronounced and this *h* is retained when it ends the word, viz: *Schuh*, *Kuh*, *Floh*, *Stroh*, *Vieh*, *Geweh*, *zaeh*, *nah*, *froh*, *frueh*, *roh*, *rauh*, *floh*.

els the customary indications of length. Words like *Semmelmel* (*Semmel-mehl*), *ererbietig* (*ehrerbietig*), etc., were quoted to show the necessity of the *h* for the long and accented syllable. In the words *Kamel*, *Lorber*, *quer*, *Schere*, *scheren*, *bescheren*, *Schmer*, *Werwolf*, *Wergeld*, *Feme*, *helen*, *verhehlen*, *Hel*, the conference decided in favor of the dropping of the indication of length, on the ground that these words have for some time shown an uncertain spelling. Even in the above recommendations of the conference we might question the positive necessity for an indication of length, at least in the majority of cases with the vowel *e*. As long as we have spelled *leben*, *wesen*, *legen*, *ergeben*, *erregen*, *verbeten*, *ererbien*, *elend*, *bisherig*, etc., without a doubt as to their proper pronunciation it would not be so wonderful to do the same with *stelen*, *nemen*, *empfehlen*, *bestelen*, *ererbietig*, etc.

The distinction in orthography between the adverb *wieder* and the preposition *wider*, being actually the same word, was given up and *wider* recommended for both. LUTHER in his last edition of the Bible writes everywhere *wider*, and only in the 17th century writers begin to make this distinction, which in compounds very often cannot at all be strictly made, for instance in *wiederhallen* and *widerhallen*, *wiederspiegeln* and *widerspiegeln*, etc. The spelling of the forms *gibst*, *gibt*, *gib* of *geben* instead of *giebst*, etc., (our text-books generally give both) was preferred. Their pronunciation varies. Nearly all North and Middle Germany give them the short vowel nevertheless most poets rhyme *gieb*, *giebst*, *giebt*, with words that have the organic *ie*. * In *ergiebig*, *nachgiebig*, *ausgiebig*, the syllable *gieb* is long, therefore written *ie*.

The spelling *Mine* from the French *mine* was declared the proper one in the sense of *mine* as well as *mien*. They are in reality the same word and only since ADELUNG's time have they begun to differ in orthography (cf. DIEZ, *Woerterbuch der Romanischen Spr.*, vol. I., p. 277.)

Diphthongs by general rule already long, need no indication of length, the conference therefore recommended the abolishing of such orthography as *Theil*, *Thier*, *theuer*, *Thau*, etc., and with it in all German words the inorganic *h* in the combination *th* which represents no different sound from the simple *t*. Certain words from older Germanic dialects and foreign languages were expected, e. g., *Theoderich*, *Theobald*, *Than*, *Theologie*, *Thee*, etc. This praiseworthy step banishes from all German words a combination historically and phonetically wrong and useless. At the conclusion of the discussion on the indication of short and long vowels, the conference found no special objections to the use of the circumflex to show a long vowel and the acute to indicate the accent.

Some movement in the direction of conservatism in the indication of

* "Wenn ein edles Herz es giebt,
Das uneigennützig liebt"—

Rhymes like

(Rückert)

"Seht, wie die Biene von dem Honig nippt,
Den freudig ihr die holde Blume gibt"

are perhaps not the best.

long vowels is certainly necessary for our school books, and to use the words of one of the most prudent and practical Germanists and teachers: "It is not merely a matter of getting rid of some superfluous letters, but a very great relief and help in the teaching of German orthography." The language has thrown out such letters ever since LUTHER's time, and LUTHER himself did so, notwithstanding the objections that no doubt were raised then as they are now (cf. LUTHER's earlier and later works).

Words that formerly doubled the vowel or inserted an *h* (cf. KURZ, *Literatur-Geschichte*, vol. 2, FLEMMING, ZINKREFF. GÖDEKE, 11 BUECHER., vol. I) have dropped those indications—our eyes certainly do not miss them now—which makes the number of German syllables that according to present orthography show no indication of a long vowel, four times greater than those that do.

The question would now arise who are the grammarians outside of those gentlemen of the conference that are in favor of a restriction in the use of these unnecessary indications of a lengthened vowel. The grammars of F. BAUER and K. A. HOFFMANN (the former in its 14th edition, the latter in its 9th) go in this respect entirely with the conference (BAUER, p. 171, Hoffmann, p. 22) and among many other works that advocate reform are those of F. BALLIN, M. BERNDT, E. GÖTZINGER, K. KLAUNIG, R. RISSMANN, H. B. RUMPELT, G. STIER, TH. VERNALEKEN, J. ZACHER, etc. The dictionaries of GRIMM and WEIGAND which as to their authority need no comment (cf. VON RAUMER, *Geschichte d. Germ. Philologie*, BAUER, *Gram.*) give the recommended spelling in every case as the better one, in fact, the feeling among prominent and practical schoolmen in Germany that a restriction in these premises is necessary, seems to be general.

In the choice between the letters that have the same or a similar sound as *ä*, and *e*, *äu* and *eu*, *f* and *v*, etc., the conference followed with little variance the customary spelling. They rejected the use of the *ph* in German words—the word *Epheu* excepted, which surely might have gone with the rest, notwithstanding its supposed derivation (O. H. G. *ebi* [Lat. *apium*] and *Heu*). The *ph* represents only the sound of *f* and is not entitled to a position in German words; our standard dictionaries therefore write *Adolf*, *Rudolf*, *Westfalen*, etc., however *Philosophie*, *Phosphor*, etc. (cf. GRIMM, WEIGAND, etc.) HEYSE gives both but the simple *f* as the more correct (cf. *Fremdwoerterbuch*.) In the use of the similar sounding letters, *d*, *t* and *dt* at the end of a word, the conference retained the orthography as given by our best lexicons that write *Schmied*, *Versand*, but *Brot*, *Ernte*, *gescheit*, *Schwert*, etc. The *dt* in the adjective *todt* was declared a monstium, phonetically and etymologically wrong, the vowel being long and the *d* in no way historically connected with it. They recommended the spelling *tot* (*töten*, *der Tote*) which furthermore would make it much more distinct from the noun *der Tod* (*Todsünde*, *todkrank*). It is a pity that the *dt* in *Stadt* was not thrown out in the same way, it has no right there whatsoever (cf. WEIGAND, *Statt*, *Stätte*).

The next point debated and adopted by the conference that affects the orthography of our school books is the use of the *sz* and *ss*. The consonantal combination *sz* and the double letter *ss* in our text-books have their place in most cases according to the orthography of ADELUNG and GOTT-

schied, in Germany that of HEYSE (father and son) is preferred by many. To some extent they all agree upon the general rule which says: sz after a long vowel (*Fusz, Grusz*), ss after a short one (*Gasse, Kresse*), but the ADELUNG-GOTTSCHED spelling restricts the ss to a position between two vowels and places the sz as the final letter or before a consonant regardless of the length or shortness of the vowel preceding, while HEYSE in his last editions consistently carries through the general rule and puts the ss (ss when final) after a short vowel no matter whether between two vowels or before a consonant. The sign ss for ss employed by HEYSE at the end of a word is merely a graphical difference. Thus HEYSE *Guss* (*Güsse*), *Fluss* (*Flüsse*), *hasst* (*hasse*), etc., but according to ADELUNG and GOTTSCHED and most of our American text-books, *Gusz* (*Güsse*), *Flusz* (*Flüsse*), *haszt*, (*hasse*), etc., which makes the use of the sz representing as it does, only one consonant not analogous to our present New-High-German orthography that requires after a short, accented vowel a double consonant even before an inflexional consonant as for instance in *schaft*, etc. (cf. BECKER, *Schulgram*, p. 652). Such orthography is surely calculated to complicate matters and make it difficult to pronounce correctly not only for the American but also for the German and leads to mistakes in reading and writing without giving the slightest advantage in return. The reason given why the sz should be taken at the end of the word instead of ss, because the latter does not look well there, is trivial and shows great inconsistency, since no objection is made in the use of *ff* in the very same position (cf. HEYSE, *Lehrbuch*, vol. I). In many instances there might be some objection to the use of ss for sz, on etymological grounds but then ADELUNG and GOTTSCHED as well as HEYSE use them without the slightest regard to derivation. The length and shortness of the vowel according to the choice of sz or ss has historically of course no weight whatever, but to return now to an historical spelling when for the last century our schoolmasters have taught us differently would be a vain attempt, no one would like to spell at present *Wasser, lassen, essen*, etc., with an sz, yet it would be etymologically the correct letter in these words. v. RAUMER says on this subject: "The attempt to introduce the so-called historical spelling which in every case puts the etymologically correct letter must be looked upon as a failure, since it would introduce an entirely different principle in our orthography" (cf. *Sprachwiss. Schriften*, II., III., IV.) JACOB GRIMM, the father of the historical school abandoned that idea (cf. GRIMM, Dictionary).

The conference adopted the HEYSE spelling with the slight change of not alone using the ss at the end of the word but also before a consonant. We write therefore *Guss* (*Güsse*), *Fluss* (*Flüsse*), *hasst* (*hasse*), *musst* (*müsse*), etc. Whether this change in the HEYSE orthography is an improvement, may be doubted, the combination *-sst* is surely uncommon. The conference seems to have been guided in this matter by unaccountable aversion to the ss at the end of a word. With the single *s* (s) the usual mode of spelling was retained and for the expression of the signs sz, ss, *s* (s) with Latin letters the conference agreed upon *fs* for sz; *ss* for ss and *ss*; *s* or *f* for *s* (s). These signs are by no means new for they occur as early as 1772. Later we find them among other works, in SCHILLER's celebrated five *Musen-Almanache* (1796—1800) (cf. *Verhandlungen der Conferenz*). HEYSE

likewise has them (*Lehrbuch*, vol. I, p. 361); yet the use of *fs* for the Latin representative of the German *sz* appears not a happy one. Considering the greater simplicity and consistency of HEYSE's rules concerning these "S" sounds and that his works have had an immense if not the largest circulation of any grammatical helps in the schools of Germany (cf. JOLLY, *Schulgram u. Sprachwiss.*, p. 13) and that even outside the school his influence in this respect has been great, the press in some instances employing his spelling, there can be but little doubt that the HEYSE use of the *sz*, *ss*, *ss*, will soon find general adoption.

A matter that should next engage our attention is the too frequent use of capital initials so prevalent in our present German orthography. Their employment before LUTHER's time was as limited as it is now in other languages and LUTHER used them by no means consistently. Soon after him it began to be the rule to begin every noun with a capital (cf. KURZ, *Literaturgesch.*, vol. II). If we add to this the tendency of doubling letters, of inserting unnecessary letters to indicate long vowels and the lack in German of simple signs for consonantal combinations like *sch*, *ch*, *sz*, and others we may understand why the representation on paper of German sounds seems cumbersome to the eye, particularly striking in verse and when side by side with another language (cf. GRIMM). The capital initials take room and time in printing and writing and the aid they give in reading is but imaginary, while they are apt to be used arbitrarily. For instance who can tell whether *Abends* or *abends* is correct. I might write it, notwithstanding its being parsed as an adverb, with a capital; it is the genitive of the noun *Abend* and according to that has a right to the distinction of a capital initial (cf. SCHLEICHER, *Deutsche Sprache*). Indeed the frequent occurrence of capitals is detrimental to caligraphy and to typographical beauty, and the advantage derived from their use with substantives is shown in comparatively few cases (cf. HEYSE, vol. I, p. 210). There is little hope of repressing the present use of capitals to any great extent, but it is at least possible to stop their increase and as much as possible look to their diminution (cf. BAUER, *Gram.*) which may be advanced by considering it safer to use in all doubtful cases, a small initial (cf. HOFFMANN, *Elementargram.*).

The conference proposed to write substantives with a small letter when they take the meaning of other kinds of words. Of this kind are the words *morgens*, *abends*, etc., which have taken the value of adverbs of time, verbal expressions like *danksagen*, *haushalten*, *not tun*, *recht haben*, *preisgeben*, *feind sein*, etc., substantives that have become adjectives or otherwise lost their original value like *ein paar* (some), *ein bisschen*, *ein andermal*, *das dritte mal*, pronouns and numerals *jemand*, *niemand*, *der eine*, *der andere*, *etwas*, *nichts*, etc., adjectives and adverbs in combinations like *arm und reich*, *jung und alt*, *im ganzen*, *nichts gutes*, *im allgemeinen*, *von neuem*, etc. (cf. GRIMM, WEIGAND, BAUER, HOFFMANN). Most of these words are spelt with a capital letter in our American school books. HEYSE, although himself using the capital in some of those expressions, recommends the small initial as the better (cf. HEYSE, vol. I, p. 214).

In rules for spelling words from other languages the conference showed decided conservatism in bereaving those strangers of their foreign garb

even if their sound might be correctly represented by a German orthography. The spelling of our standard lexicographers and our best American text-books remains therefore on the whole our guide as heretofore. The words, for which the conference has proposed a different orthography from that generally followed, will be found in the vocabulary at the end of the report. In the choice between the hard *C* and the *K* it was decided to prefer the *K* in words that have become naturalized. Thus *Kamel*, *Kapital*, *Konferenz*, *Kultur*, *Adjektiv*, *Advokat*, *Dekan*, *Direktor*, *Lokomotive*, *des Konsistoriums*, *die Konsistorien*, *Kompanie*, etc., but *Adjectiva*, *Compagnie*, *Campagne*, *Commis*, *des Consistorii*, *die Consistoria*, *Couvert*, etc. In the choice between the soft *C* and *Z* three classes of words were recognized. Those that retain the foreign *C*, those that take the German *Z*, and those that may either take the one or the other. In the first class we have *Cäsar*, *Centimeter*, *Cigarre*, *Cirkumflex*, *Citat*, *Scene*, *social*, etc. In the second *Zirkel*, *Zelle*, *Offizier*, *Bronze*, etc., also those from the Latin in *tius*, *tia*, *tium*, like *Justiz*, *Distanz*, *Horaz*, etc. In the third class we have *Citrone* by the side of *Zitrone*, *Cirkus* and *Zirkus*, *Medicin* and *Medizin*, *Centrum* and *Zentrum*, etc. For the sake of ease it is to be regretted that the conference did not propose the German equivalent for the foreign letter in all cases where its sound can be correctly rendered by a German letter.

As regards the spelling of foreign words with an accented syllable and a short vowel, it was recommended to write them with a geminated consonant at the end e. g. *Appell*, *Ballott*, *bigott*, *Bueffett*, *kokett*, *Terzett*, *violett*, etc., which is but verifying that which has generally been the custom before.

In the division of words into syllables no change of consequence was proposed. Words like *Hacken*, *Lasten*, *Wespe*, *klopfen*, *kratzen*, *Finger*, are separated *Hak-ken*, *Las-ten*, *Wes-pe*, *klop-fen*, *krat-zen*, *Fin-ger* which is nearly according to BECKER's rules. HEYSE objects to separating *ck*, *pf*, *sp*, *st*, *tz*. The consonantal combinations *sch*, *ch* are looked upon as one consonant and go to the vowel of the next syllable.

The habit of writing the "Umlaut" of the capitals *Ae*, *Oe*, *Ue*, was objected to and *Ä*, *Ö*, *Ü*, as in their small equivalents adopted instead. The conference also recommended to distinguish properly at all times the capital *I* from *J* which is rarely done in our school books.

The last but surely not the least point of importance we find in the discussions and recommendations of the conference regarding the return to Roman letters, which after the disuse of the runes by our Teutonic ancestors, were the only letters we knew, and in which nearly the whole magnificent literature of the first German classic period is written. The so-called German alphabet of to-day in printing and writing is nothing else but a corrupted form of the Latin, brought about by the fancy of the copyists of the 13th and 14th centuries, which was but in accordance with the taste of that time so well expressed in its architecture by the preference of the pointed arch instead of the round Roman. The letter as well as the arch received the name *Gothic*, a name that stands in no relation whatever to the Goths and is as little justified as that of German for the present letter, since Latin, French, and English books were likewise first

printed in this type, the inventors of printing of course imitating the letters they found on their manuscripts. Such foolish objections to a change of letter as patriotic feeling, reverence for the past, and similar nonsense, are entirely out of place. In giving up the pointed forms of the 14th century on other fields most nations returned to the Latin letter. Germany and Denmark in spite of the protest of their greatest grammarians, JACOB GRIMM and ERASMUS RASK, have retained it. Independent of a probably weakening influence on the eyes in the use of smaller print than the *Brevier*, the Latin type is certainly much prettier, simpler and in many cases more advantageous. On this last head a proprietor and editor of one of the most influential German papers in America says, that owing to the type, his paper, although larger in size, does not contain any more than much smaller English papers that may readily use the *Nonpareil* and *Minion* without giving offence to their subscribers, and he adds: "From the large amount of paper I have to use, my journal is much more expensive than the English." JACOB GRIMM among other very good reasons for employing the Latin letter, says: "A pupil has to learn eight signs instead of four. It obliges all German printing establishments to have on hand a double supply of type, German and Latin. The difference of the capitals *J* and *I* is not expressed, the same character standing for both. It hinders the spread of German books abroad, etc." He might have added that to a pupil the printed capitals *B* and *V*, *N* and *R*, the small letters *r* and *x*, the long *f* and the *f*, etc., are too much alike particularly in carelessly printed books and among our school books we have many of that sort.

The conference declared that a gradual return to the Latin alphabet used by most European nations, would be advisable. That it should be practised in primary schools to the same extent as the German and that the exclusive use of it by pupils of High Schools for their German essays be granted in every case.

The immense use of the Latin letter at present in Germany is shown in any large library; for instance in the PEABODY library at Baltimore, by the way one of the most carefully selected collections of books in the country, there are 4,000 German volumes on various sciences in that type, exclusive of the reports of the Berlin, Vienna, and Munich academies, and perhaps 60 or more monthly periodicals.

The arguments, that no doubt will be brought against the adoption of the recommendations of the conference for our school books, that account should be taken of the public, writers, press, and the literature, which has descended to us, are pretty well answered by members of that body. The school, it was said, has been the place for two centuries where all simplifying of orthography has been carried through and spread without opposition from the public, over the whole country. The representatives of the Publishers' and Printers' Associations maintained that the bulk of printed matter came from writers that followed no special system of orthography, and with other manuscripts particularly those published after the death of the authors, the publisher had it his own way; besides the united Publishing and Printing Associations had the power, means and will, to carry through a sensible reform in German orthography. In

conclusion the conference certainly hoped the press generally would join them, considering the variety of spelling used in manuscripts sent to them and the hurry in which such matter very often has to be made ready for the compositors' room.

As examples of German verse and prose in the proposed new spelling the following may serve:

Wenn ich von diesem Leid nicht sollt genesen,
Im langen Siechtum schleppen mich zur Bare
Durch viele truebe kummervolle Jare
Unrettbar dulden soll so viel des Bösen;
Dann gib du groszes namenloses Wesen
Gib, dass mir zweierlei nicht widerfare
Damit ich mir den Glauben noch beware
Du kannst verdammen, aber auch erlösen.

(Aus "Lazarus," Hermann Neumann.)

Da sieht man kein Auge tränenleer
Und zum Koenige bringt man die Wundermär
Der fuelt ein menschliches Rueren
Lässt schnell vor den Tron sie fueren.

("Buergschaft," Schiller.)

Da fur er auf. Aus des Palastes Hallen
Kam dumpf Geräusch; der Herr der Welt war tot;
Er aber schaute kuen ins Morgenrot,
Und sahs wie einer Zukunft Vorhang wallen.

(Aus "Tod des Tiberius," Em. Geibel.)

Ein eignes Gefuel durchstroemte beide; das Gefuel ein teures Kleinod gefunden zu haben; das Verlangen bei diesem Kleinod zu sein fuer und fuer sonder Unterlass. Wenn jemand einen lieben Brief erhaelt, wie oft faert seine Hand in die Tasche und liest ihn von neuem! Wenn jemand eine liebe Seele gefunden und an sich gebunden, nicht fuer diese Zeit, sondern auch fuer die Ewigkeit, soll es ihn dann nicht hin zu dieser Seele ziehen mit Himmels Gewalt? Soll es ihn nicht in ihre Augen, die Tore der Seele, hineinziehen, um das Gefuel lebendig zu erhalten, etc.

Aus "Uli der Knecht," A. Bitzius.)

In viewing the recommendations of the conference one cannot held being struck with the comparatively easy task the German will have introducing this reform. What fearful labor on the contrary is before those gentlemen who in spite of the enormous opposition, have gallantly instituted a movement in America and England to reduce the English speech, that youngest and perhaps least phonetic member of the Indo-European family, to some system in accordance with phonetic principles. The Philological Association and the Spelling Reform Association of America under the leadership of the first philologists in the land have declared "Without phonetic spelling no uniformity and clearness of pronunciation," and in November last year in England, the London school-board on motion of Dr. GLADSTONE passed the resolution that "A great difficulty is placed in the way of education by the present method of spelling and that it is highly desirable the government should be moved to issue a

Royal commission for considering the best manner of reforming and simplifying it." This movement of simplification seems to be general in the Teutonic world. Scandinavia is also engaged upon it, but the difficulties which present themselves to a successful issue in either the Scandinavian or the German are but few when compared with those that have to be overcome in English. The German tongue always was more or less phonetic and the proposed changes only involve a principle of economy and uniformity in spelling, a principle recognised long ago and practised without protest from the public, by some of the most popular writers of polite literature in Germany (VOSS, VILMAR, PLATEN, FREITAG, etc.). To judge from the feeling in educational circles in Germany it will be a question of very little time, and school books in Germany will appear in the new orthography and, it is to be hoped, in the proposed type also; and when that occurs, even if the older literature and the newspapers should not at once go with them, it would be perfectly safe and wise for our German school books of America to follow. The American teacher of German is surely alive to the importance of a movement which tends to simplify matters for the learner; and the advisability of a reform of German orthography, even if not as sweeping and consistent as one might have wished, it seems, is recognized by the majority of those teachers whose opinions in the premises are worth having. The uniformity in spelling aimed at will certainly lead to greater security in pronunciation with the beginner, and were it for no other reason, this would make it most desirable, since a correct pronunciation, quoting the words of a distinguished instructor of modern languages in America, "Even before the earliest lessons in grammar is of absolute and prime necessity."

LIST OF WORDS

THAT SHOW A DIFFERENT ORTHOGRAPHY FROM THAT EMPLOYED
IN MOST OF OUR AMERICAN TEXT-BOOKS.

A

Abendmal
abends
Abenteuer
abramen
abschlaegig, abschlaeg-
lich
abspenstig
abstrakt
Accusativ
Achat
Achse
adelig, adlich
Adjektiv, Adjectiva
Adolf
Advokat
Affekt
afficiren, affiziren
Akazie
Akt, Akten
Aktie
Aktion
aktiv
Al (*cel*)
Ale (*awl*)
Alchimie
Alkohol
alle, vor allem
(allgemein), im allge-
meinen
Allianz, Alliance
Amboss
anden
Andung
Anekdote
anen, Anung
aenlich
Anmut
annektiren
Annexion
Ar (*eagle & measure*)
Araak
Äre
Argwon, argwoenisch
Ärmel
Armut
Artur, Arthur
As (*card and carion*)
Assekuranz
Ästhetik

Atem
atmen
Äther
Aufrur
Augenbraue
Augenlid
Auktion
aufs aeufserste

B

Bai
Bajonett
Ballett
Ban, banen, anbanen
Bann, bannen, verban-
nen

bar, bares Geld
Barbier, barbieren
Bardiet, Bardit
Bare
barfuss, barhaupt
Barschaft
barock
Baryton
Bass
Bedeuttheit
belonen
beraten
beruemt
beschere, bescherte
beschere, beschor
beste, am besten, aufs
 beste, zum besten ha-
ben

Bewandtnis
bewaren
bewaeren
Bewusstsein
Bibel
Biber
Billett
Biss
bisschen, ein bisschen
Biskuit
Bistum
Biwak (Beiwacht)
blass, Blaesse
Bluete
Bole (Brett)
Bone
bonen

boren, Borer
Bot, das (Gebot)
Bowl
Brandmal
Brennessel
Brot
Brael
bruennett
Buchsbaum
Bueffett
bulen, Bule
Buene
Bureau
Butike

C

Café, Kaffee
 Ceder, Zeder
 cediren, zediren
 Censur, Zensur
 Centner, Zentner
 Centrum, Zentrum
 Ceremonie, Zeremonie
 Cession, Zession
 Charakter
 Charpie
 Chicane, Schikane
 Chimaere, Schimaere
 Cichorie
 Cider
 Cigarre
 Cikade
 Cirkular, Zirkular
 cirkuliren, zirkuliren
 Cirkumflex
 Cirkus, Zirkus
 Cisterne
 Citadelle, Zitadelle
 Citrone, Zitrone
 Coelibat
 Commis
 Compagnie, Kompanie
 Compagnon
 Comptoir, Kontor
 Coulissee
 Cypresse

D

dalen
decent, dezent
Defekt

Defizit	erbofsen, erbosen	Gehuelfe, Gehilfe
Dekagramm	Ereignis	Geisel (Buerge)
Dekan	ergoetzen, ergetzen	Geißel (Peitsche)
dekathiren	Ernte	Gemal, Gemalin
Dekameter	(erst), am, zum ersten	Gemeine, Gemeinde
deklamiren	erwaenen	Gemuuet, gemuetlich
deklariren	erwidern	Gendarm, <i>Plur.</i> en
dekliniren	Eskadron	Genoss
Delikt	Etikette	Genuss
Dekret	exakt	Geraet
delizioes, delicious	express	geraten
Demokrat	Extrakt	geratewol, aufs gerate-
Demut, demuuetig		wol
Denkmal	F	gesamt
deshalb, desgleichen	Facade, Fassade	gescheit
deswegen, desselben	faktisch	gewar werden
Dezember, December	Faktur	gewaren
Dezimal, Decimal	Fakultaet	Gewarsam
dezimiren, decimiren	fal	Gewaer
Diakon, Diakonissin	Faenrich, Faendrich	gewaeren
Dialekt	Faere	Gewaersmann
Dickicht	Fart	Gewinst
Dienstag	Fasan	gewiss
Diktat, diktiren	Fee, Feen, Feeen	Gewissheit
Diktator	Feme, Femgericht	gewoenen
Dioecese, Dioezese	Fibel	Gewonheit
direkt	Fiber (Faser)	gib, gibst, gibt
Direktive	Fieber (Krankheit)	Gips
Direktor	Fiktion	(gleichen) seines glei-
Diskant	Finsternis	chen
Diskonto	Firnis, Firnisses	gleichwol
Diskretion	Fiskus	Gleisner
diskuriren	Fittich	gleisnerisch
Diskussion	flektiren	Glut
Doktor	Flut, fluten	gotisch, Gote
Dokument	Folen	grass, graesslich
Dole	Foen	Grat
Dolman	Foere	Graete
Domizil, Domicil	Fron, Frondienst	Gros (12 doz.)
Draht (drehen)	Fronfest, Fronleichnam	Grofsmut
Drone	fronen, froenen	grofsmuuetig
droenen	fuelen, Fuelung	(gut) zu gute kommen
Dukaten	fueren, Fuerung	
	fuerlieb, vorlieb	H
	Furmann	hallo
E	Furt	Han, Hanschrei
Edikt	Fuerwitz, Vorwitz	Har, Harzopf
Effekt		haushalten
einmal, auf einmal	G	Hausgeraet
einramen	Gala	Haustuer
ekelig, eklich	gaeng und gaebe	Havarie
Ekliptik	ganzen, 'im	Heide (<i>heathen & heath</i>)
Ekstase	gaeren	Heimat
Elefant	Gastmal	Heirat
elektrisch	Gebaerde, gebaren	helen, verhelen
Elentier	Gebuer, gebueren	Herd
elf	Gefar	Herde
Eltern	gefaerden	Hering
emancipiren, emanzipi-	gefaerlich	Hifthorn
ren	Gefaerte	Hoffart, hoffsuertig
Encyclopaedie, Enzy-	Gefuel	hol
klopaedie		

Hoele	Kanarienvogel	Klima
holen	Kandelaber	Klinik
Hon	Kandelzucker	Kloake
honen, verhoenen	Kandidat	Klub
Hornis, Hornisse	Kaneel	Knuettel, Knuettel- verse
Hotel	kanneliert	The syllables <i>ko, kon, kol,</i> <i>kom, kot</i> in naturalized words, <i>i. e.</i> , that have ta- ken the German inflec- tions, thus:
Hun, Huener	Kannibale	koordiniren
Hut (<i>hat and heed</i>)	Kanon, kanonisch	konversiren
Hypotenuse	Kanonikus	Kollege
I	Kantate	komponiren
Iltis	Kanton	korrigiren, etc.
Imbiss	Kantor, <i>Plur. en</i>	Kokarde
indes, indessen	Kap	Koks
inkognito	Kaplan, Kapellan	kokett
Inkonsequenz	Kapelle	Kol, Kolrabi
inkorrekt	kapern	Kole, Koeler
Insasse	Kapital	Kolibri
Insekt	Kapitaen	Kolonie
insbesondere	Kapitel	Kolonne
insgesamt	Kapuze	koloriren
Inspektor	Karabinier	Koloss, Kolossal
Instinkt	Karaffe	Komfort
Instruktion	Karawane	Kommerz
Insurrektion	Karbonade	Kommissbrot
Interpunktion	Kardinal	Kompass
Intrigant	Karfreitag	Komplott
Irrtum	Karl, Karoline	Komtur
irrtuemlich	Karmin	koncentriren, konzen- tiren
J	Karneval	Koncert, Konzert
Jakob	Karosse	Koncession, Konzes- sion
Jaenner	Kartause	Kondor
Jar	Karton	Konfekt
Jarzehnt	Karzer	konkav
K	Kaserne	Kontrakt
Kabale	Kasino	Kontrolle (Controleur)
Kabinett	Kaskade	Kopie
Kabriolett	Kasse	Kornett
Kadett	Kastell	korrekt
Kaefig	Kasuist	Korrespondenz
Kajuete, Kojette	Kasuar	Korsar
Kakao	Katakombe	Korvette
Kaktus, <i>Plur. Kakteen</i>	Katalog	Kostuem
kal	Katarakt	Kot, kotig
Kalesche	Katarrh	Kran
Kalfaktor, (Calefactor)	Katastrophe	krass
Kaliber	Kathedrale	Kredit
Kalif	Katholik	Kreole
Kaliko	Kavalier	Kritik
kalkuliren	Kavallerie	Krucifix, Kruzifix
Kalligraphie	Kaviar	Kuckuck
Kam, kamig	Kenntnis	kuen, Kuenheit
Kamee	Kirmess, Kirmes	Kur, kuriren
Kamel	Kissen, Kuessen (<i>pil-</i> <i>low</i>)	Kuerass
Kamelie	Klarinette	Kuerbis
Kamerad	Klassiker	Kurie
Kamille	Klaue	
Kan, Kaene	Klavier	
Kanapee	Kleinmut	
	Klerus	
	Klient	

Kurier	musiciren, musiziren	publiziren, publiciren
Kurs	musste, muessen	
	Mut, mutig	Q
	mutmafsen	Quai, Kai
L	N	R
lam, laemen	Nachteil	Ram (<i>cream</i>)
Langmut	nachts	Ramen (<i>frame</i>)
lass, laessig	Naht	Rapier
Lektion	Narcisse, Narzisse	Rasse (<i>race</i>)
Lektuere	naeren, Narung	Rat, Schulrat
Lichtmess	naseweis	Raetsel
Lid (<i>lid</i>)	Nation, Nazion	Rebhun
Lied (<i>song</i>)	Nebenbuler	recht sein, recht haben
Lieutenant, Leutnant	Negoziant	Recept, Rezept
Likoer	Not, noetigen	Reis (<i>rice and twig</i>)
Liter	not sein, not tun	Rektor
Lokomotive	zu nutze machen	Renntier
Lon, loenen		Respekt
Lorber	O	Ries (<i>ream</i>)
Los, losen	obskur	Riss
Lot, loeten	obwol	Ror
Lotse	Ocean, Ozean	Röre
Ludolf	offiziell, officiell	Ross
Luise	offizioes, officioes	rot, röten
lukrativ	Ökonom	Rur
	Oktober	rueren
M	Öl	ruerig
Mal (<i>meal</i>)	Om (<i>liquid measure</i>)	Rute, Angelrute
Mal (<i>mark</i>)	one, one weiteres	S
mal (jedesmal)	Onmacht, onmachtig	Sabbat
Mammut	Or, Oren	Safian
mancher, mancherlei	Ör, Nadeloer	Safran
Maene	Öse	Sakrament
manen, Manung	P	Sakristei
Manufaktur	Par, Paerchen	Sal, Tanzsal
Manuskript	par, ein parmal	Salär
Maer, Maere, Maerchen	Parkett	Same
(<i>legend</i>)	Particip, Partizip	Sammet, Samt
Maere (<i>horse</i>)	Pass	sämtlich, samt
Margarete	Pate	Sane
Medicin, Medizin	perfekt	Sanftmut
Meerrettich	Pfal, pfalen	Sat, Aussat
Mehltau	Pful	Satire
Mesner	Pfuel	Scepter, Zepter
Messbuch	Pike	schade sein
Met	Praeceptor, Praezeptor	Schaf
Meter	praecis, praezis	Schafott
Miete, vermieten	Praedikat	schal (<i>stale</i>)
Mikroskop	Praefekt	Schal, Shawl
Mine (<i>mine</i>)	pralen, Pralerei	Schar, Heerscharen
Mine (<i>minen</i>)	Princip, Prinzip	Scharnier
miss, as prefix in miss-	Projekt	scheel, Scheelsucht
achten, Missbrauch,	Prokurator	scheren, Schere
Missmut, etc.	Prospekt	Schiffart, Schifferar
Mon, Monkuchen	Prozent, Procent	Schikane, Chicane
Mor, Marast	Prozess, Process	Schimäre, Chimäre
morgens	Prozession, Procession	Schloss
Morruebe	Publikum	Schluss
Mos		Schmer
Mosaik		
Mume		

Schokolade	toenen	Wal, waelen
Schooner, Schoner	Ton, Toepferton	Walfisch
Schoss	Tor (<i>gate and fool</i>)	Walhalla
Schössling	tot, toeten	Walkuere
schuld sein, geben	Tran	Walnuss
Schultheifs	Traene	Walplatz
Schuss	Tross	Walrat
Schwermut	tun (tuen)	Walross
schwuel, Schwuele	tum, tuemlich (<i>suffix</i>)	Walstatt
See, Seen, Seeen	Tuer, Kammertuer	Walter, Walther
Sekretär	Turm	Wams
Sekte	Tuete	Wan, waenen
Sekundant	U	Wansinn
Service, Servis	Überdruss	Wanwitz
sesshaft	Überfluss	Warheit, war
Siechtum	Ulan	Ware
Sirup	Unfiat	warnehmen
skrofuloes	ungefaer	Wuerung
Sofa	Ungetuem	Warzeichen
Sole (<i>sole and brine</i>)	Unmut	wehe tun
Son, Soene	unpass	Wehmut
sowol	Unrat	weitem, bei
Spat, Feldspat	unverholen	weitlaeufig, weitlaeuftig
spazieren	unwert	Weizen
speziell, speziell	unzaelig	wenig, ein
spezifisch, spezifisch	Urteil, urteilen	Wergeld
Spektakel	V	Wermut
Spektrum	Vakanz	Werwolf
Sprit	Vampir	Wert, wert
Spuk, spuken (<i>apparition</i>)	Verdruss	weshalb, weswegen
spucken (<i>to spit</i>)	verfahren	wider (<i>again & against</i>)
Stat, Statsrat, etc.	verjaeren	Widergebur
stattfinden, von stat	Verlies	widerkehren
tenen	vermaelen	Widerkunt
Stal, Mordstal	vermieten	widerlegen
stäl	vermuten	widerspenstig
Star (<i>starling and cataract</i>)	verraten, Verraeter	willens sein
starblind	versoenen, Versoenung	Willkuer
Stil (<i>style</i>)	verteidigen	Wirt, Wirtschaft
stoenen	verteilen	Witwer, witwe
Stral, Lichtstral	verwaren	Wol, das
stralen	verwarlosen	wol
Stul	verwoenen	Wolgeboren
Suene, suenen	verwitwet	wolgemut
T	Vezir, Wesir, Wessir	Wolleben
Tagelon	Viadukt	wonen, Wohnung
Takt	Vikar	wuelen
Tal, Täler	Vlies	wunder nehmen
Talisman	Vokativ	wusste
tapezieren	Volontaer	Wut, wueten
Tat, Untat	vorderhand	Wueterich
Taeter	vorliebe, fuerlieb	Z
Tau (<i>dew and rope</i>)	vormittags	Zal zaelen
Teer	vorraetig	zam zaemen
Teil, teilen, teilnehmen	Vorteil	Zan, Vorderzaene
teuer	vartrefflich, fuertrefflich	Zar
Tier	Vorwitz, Fuerwitz	Zaere
Tichten und Trachten	W	Zierat
Ton (<i>sound</i>)	Wacholder	Zimmet, Zimt
	Wachstum	Zinober
		Zirkel

NORMAL DEPARTMENT.

First Day's Proceedings.

TUESDAY, AUGUST 14, 1877.

The Normal Department was called to order by the President, LOUIS SOLDAN, of the St. Louis Normal School. S. H. WHITE, of Illinois, was chosen Vice-President, and GRACE C. BIBB, Secretary.

The President then read the following address:

OPENING ADDRESS.

In the apparent maze of heavenly bodies and in their restless gyrations the Greeks believed to have discovered such beautiful unity and harmony, that they imagined that the celestial orbs moved in the rhythmical flow of music: All was motion and melody, the greater and the lesser lights mingled their full voices in the Music of the Spheres.

In the seemingly conflicting elements of our social life, in the collisions of different interests, in the competition for commercial supremacy, in the struggle for political power, the thinking mind can see more than dissonance or discord. It can trace in these conflicts the working of an imperious power which crushes the struggle of the particular, when it resists the general law, and compels all things to move in accord with their universal truth. The collisions between individuality and rationality, between particular interests and the general good are never ending and never doubtful in their result. Out of dissolved discords arises harmony of greater beauty and through the din of collisions and conflicts we may hear the harmonious music of the spheres of social life.

The particular interest can find its existence only in the agreement with its universal.—Normal School interests are subordinate to General Education; education again is but one of the many elements of social life and is dependent on the latter, as the particular is on the universal. The study of the rational elements of society will reveal the tasks of education and the existence or non-existence of the necessity of modification and change. Not that education should be naught but a reflection of the social aspect of the day, or should follow in its footsteps wherever it moves. For in social life the irrational element appears prominent at times, and education that would conform with it would in itself become irrational and transitory. Nor will what unfolds itself as the truth, the rationale of society to-day be the truth of the future, since relative truth is progressive and changes with the varied hues of its object. Society hides her true face by assuming a Protean variety of forms, ever changing in time and space.

If social happiness consisted in having an abundant supply of all the necessities of life, the development of commerce and industry of our century would seem to tend toward a reign of universal bliss. By the aid of machinery an incredible amount of creative work is accomplished and the net result of fifty years of machine labor may equal that of five hundred of former eras. The necessities of life, clothing, the materials for shelter and building, and the various articles of comfort are produced in superabundant quantities by comparatively little manual labor; Nature has showered upon us her full blessings in the richest crops which our fields have ever borne. And yet, instead of a reign of universal comfort and satisfaction, poverty begins to show her pale face in the streets of our cities and workingmen and laborers suffer want in forced idleness. Political economists have invented a name for the cause of this abnormal state and call it the consequence of over-production; but to assign superabundance of the products of industry as the cause of want is about as rational as to find in exuberance of crops a cause for famine.

No matter what the cause is, the fact of prevailing need and want is on record. These have led ill-advised masses to the crimes of riot and bloodshed and peaceful citizens had to shoulder the musket once more to protect their homes against an incendiary mob. Millions of property have been destroyed and a deep mark has been burned into the historical tablet of the day to remind the world, that while riots can and must be suppressed, there is a social problem connected with these scenes which cannot be cancelled except by being solved.

It would be as absurd to suppose that education can solve a problem of this magnitude single-handed, as to imagine that it can be dealt with without the aid of education. Education is certainly not the panacea for every possible social affliction, but, at the same time, it is by no means so impotent as some of its supercilious enemies have supposed. As it is one of the great instrumentalities of the state, although not the only one, the question arises, in how far can education aid in the solution of the social problem?

Investigation and experience must furnish the answer to this question in future, but the possibility of such an aid on the part of education can be demonstrated. For it cannot be doubted that among the causes of riot and bloodshed, ignorance is prominent. It is a significant fact that in scenes of violence and destruction the ignorant and illiterate furnish the principal actors. Let education do away with illiteracy and ignorance and such scenes will become less and less possible. Only ignorance can imagine a remedy against poverty in the destruction of wealth.

Education, besides enhancing the productive power of the individual, and thus assisting him in gaining the means of living, gives him greater adaptability to different avenues of life. When over-production has closed the doors of one pursuit, intelligence will open another.

It needed not the voice of violence to remind education of these problems, for it has been attempting for several years to help its pupils in the labor-struggle of life by embodying in school-systems studies of industrial importance and by founding agricultural and technological schools. Industrial drawing which is useful in every pursuit of life forms part of the

course of study in most of the city schools of the country. The necessity for the training of the hand besides that of the mind and heart has found ample recognition.

The Kindergarten in the way in which its idea has been received and carried out is another indication of this tendency. Aside from the general human culture which this institution gives by means of its objects, toys, games, and occupations, it trains the young eye by careful lessons on form and color and a great deal of manual skill and inventive power are acquired. Hence the industrial movement has taken the Kindergarten idea under its wings, recognizing, I fear, but one side of its significance.

Normal Schools should follow the delicate changes that are going on in education or rather inaugurate them themselves, by observing popular needs and rational demands, or, when any change has found its way into the common school, adjust their own work and make it harmonious with those institutions for which they educate the teachers. For the strength of Normal Schools lies in their close connection with the common school, which makes them not a luxury as some of the young statesmen of last year's growth opined, but a necessity without which the best interests of education would go to wreck and ruin in the hands of make-shift teachers. Normal Schools should keep in sympathy with the wants of the time, and not be slow in adopting and carrying out in practice what is rational and good.

Hence the problems which present themselves to Normal Schools in this respect are: "In how far shall the young teachers be prepared in regard to Art and Industrial Education"? and "In how far is the education of Kindergarten-Teachers to be considered by Normal Schools"?

Without attempting to answer these questions, it may be said that, aside from the value of drawing as an industrial study, there is no branch of learning that is able to add so much to the teacher's power of explanation, and to clearness of presentation, as the art of drawing; and that as far as the Kindergarten is concerned, a study of its system and methods is feasible even in Normal Schools that are not connected with a Kindergarten.

If thus the demands of the time are apt to crowd new requirements into the already more than well-filled course of study of the Normal School, the question arises as to what studies are to give way when work of a new order is required. In hardly any other class of schools is there such a variance in regard to the selection of studies, as exists in Normal Schools. What some consider essential studies is regarded as superfluous by others. While in the opinion of some, Normal Schools should teach professional studies exclusively, others hold that they should be academies or colleges for teachers, considering both professional and culture studies. The difficulty in one direction would lie in the question whether, if a Normal School has many culture studies, the distinctive character of the school, as a special school is not interfered with by its transition to the form of an institution for general culture. Some of the exhibits of Normal Schools at the Centennial seemed to point that way.

It may be asserted, on the other hand, that the exclusion of all but professional studies from Normal Schools, would make the time of the course shorter than desirable and than necessary for an important part of the

work: the formation of teacherlike habits. These require time and the shorter a course of study the less deep will habits take root. It would be a meritorious undertaking to examine into the question, as to what studies are strictly essential in schools of this kind. The briefest expression for the necessary work would perhaps be: Anthropology and Didactics. The discussion of the subject "Should Normal Schools be Exclusively Professional Schools?" which is on to-day's programme will no doubt give consideration to this important question. At any rate, it seems reasonable to demand to have the professional studies made the most prominent ones and all others second to them. In this connection the question as to whether the common school studies should form part of Normal-School Work should be mentioned. A paper on this subject by Prof. GREENOUGH of the R. I. State Normal School will be read before this department to-morrow.

Education is not merely an art which may be acquired by imitation or routine work and long-continued practice in the school-room, but also a science in which experience combined with a knowledge of the permanent psychical, physical, and ethical conditions of man have led to definite and abiding principles. Education as a science is the corner-stone of all pedagogical progress; for by it we can rise on the stepping-stones of experience above the stand-points of the past. We can continue the educational work of our predecessors instead of being obliged to begin at the beginning again. The Science of education is the treasury which contains the thoughts of the wisest minds that have enlightened the earth.

For the establishment of Pedagogics as a science, the founding of educational departments in connection with colleges is of the greatest importance. A good beginning has been made, but it is rather to be hoped than to be expected that at some future time no leading college will be without a chair of didactics. The need of it is evident. A considerable number of college students devote themselves to teaching, and these should not be left without a knowledge of the first principles of their occupation. Education is too earnest a subject for the experimental vigor of the novice who lacks both pedagogical practice and science. I regret that Prof. FELLOWS whose experience on this subject is well known is prevented by sickness from presenting the paper which was placed on the programme of to-morrow.

As Normal Schools are interested in the education of teachers, they are also concerned in the teacher's social standing. For on it depends in a measure the class of applicants that presents itself for admission to the profession. The general commercial depression and the prostration of business interests have, of course, exercised their influence on the administration of school systems. Retrenchments became necessary and following the decline of wages in general, the salaries of teachers have been reduced almost everywhere. It is perhaps of little use now to discuss the question whether recourse to this means was wise or necessary, considering the fact that educational work is poorly paid at the very best. In almost every other occupation there are at least some instances in which an individual has risen to wealth or at least to a competency by honest effort and persistence. Where is such an instance on record in the pro-

fession of the teacher? It seems that a calling that is not benefited by the rise of the commercial wave which brings treasures to all should neither be affected by the financial ebb. It appears a rather hard fate to place a profession in such a position that no change can bring it financial gain but any change may bring it financial loss.

It would not be worth while to speak of this matter if it merely affected the teacher personally, but, as it is, it touches also educational interests in general. For where the remuneration is hardly more than enough to pay for the necessities of life, any reduction will lead to the curtailing of such expenses as are useful but not indispensable. And I dare say that the effect of any considerable reduction of salaries will show itself in the smaller number of books purchased, the materially decreased attendance of educational meetings, and the like by which the educational interests of the country are indirectly the losers. When the appliances and the apparatus of self-culture are placed beyond the reach of the teacher the schools are bound to suffer.

Another way in which the spirit of retrenchment has manifested itself, and in this direction I do not hesitate to say manifested itself in a way that is detrimental to the best interests of education, is the attack which Normal Schools have had to sustain in several of the States during the past year.

It will not be necessary to dwell on this at present, as we may expect a paper on this subject from Mr. C. C. ROUNDS, Principal of the State N. S. of Farmington, Maine. I beg leave, however, to point out one of the fallacies in the tirade against Normal Schools. I refer to the argument which opposes these institutions on the ground that they are an unnecessary expense to the State.

Absolute monarchy can exist without Education, arbitrary despotism cannot exist with it. Free institutions can find reliable security in universal education only.

States with their many centrifugal elements can be held together by but two factors: by the brutal force of armed power or by the intelligent will and free consent of their citizens. A free state governed by a popular vote that is not guided by intelligence will become the prey of audacious usurpers. In republics especially, universal education is not a matter of choice which may be voted "up or down" by local caprice, but it is the corner stone of national existence. Education and intelligence are dangerous in a country of slaves; their absence or their decline is pernicious in a country of freemen. Here a blow at education does not merely hurt the school or the teacher, but strikes at the very basis of democratic institutions. Take away this element and the free political structure is shattered; State and society will totter and sink into chaos. Unintelligent force is not creative but destructive whether it is found in nature or in the unbridled passions of the multitude. There is no institution of the modern state which can be stunted and despoiled without all the others being crippled or destroyed. State and society, school and family are the vital organs of modern existence. Wherever the blow falls it will touch the springs of life. To slight education is not to benefit but to injure the state.

It is very true that education swallows taxes, but it also helps to pro-

duce them with a thousandfold increase; for intelligent labor is the only wealth producer. Property is not a natural but a culture-institution. The idea of property is a conception of the human mind: Animal nature knows nothing of it, nature and her objects do not become property before the human mind begins to handle her treasures and to take possession by imprinting upon them the stamp of human will. Look at a watch and compare the trifling value of the dead mineral of which it is made with the price it commands after intelligence and labor have given to it the form in which it moves its many tiny wheels keeping time with the fleeting hours of the day. The difference is nearly equal to the whole value and is the wealth which intelligent labor has added to the comparatively worthless elementary material. Hence the economical interests are benefited by the training of intelligence. Wealth plants and sows itself by paying school taxes and reaps a thousandfold harvest, for schools are wealth-producers and not merely wealth-consumers. Financial folly may attempt to save money by stunting education, but then it must not ask for sympathy at the ensuing helpless prostration of the state.

Intelligence is not merely the producer but also the preserver and protector of wealth. Both, capital and labor, require the protection of the State and with us there is but one way in which it can be accorded.

The free state controls its citizens by their voluntary compliance with their own laws; the despotic state by police regulations and military coercion.

Obedience to law however is not a natural gift but one which culture and the slow movement of world-education has given to the human race. Inanimate nature is controlled by forces which leave no choice to will. The animal is as much compelled to yield to its appetites as the world of matter is bound to obey its physical laws. The brute or the savage cannot be ruled by statute paragraphs. The intelligent being alone respects the institutions in which wealth finds security and protection. In order to make a people law-abiding it is necessary to make them intelligent. Hence wealth, in promoting educational purposes and institutions, creates for itself the highest safeguards, and secures lasting protection.

It is true enough that it is possible for unwise enthusiasm to provide an educational armor that may be too ponderous for the strength of a state and which instead of becoming an element of strength is an oppressive burden.

It may be readily admitted as a possibility that there is such a thing as over-burdening a community with educational appliances, but this hardly needs discussion. People are usually not slow in helping themselves when they feel imposed upon by such a system and the practical danger lies quite on the other side.

If the state for the sake of self-preservation must maintain universal education, it follows from this with necessity that it must support Normal Schools. For if there is but one means for the accomplishment of a necessary end, that means itself is necessary. The compulsory necessity of the end allows of no rejection of the necessary means. To favor universal education and to oppose Normal Schools is about as reasonable as to say: "We want good schools, but we shall not trouble ourselves about providing good teachers."

Nor can the economical side of the argument be sustained any better. It may sound paradoxical, but it is nevertheless true to say that the surest way of squandering public money is to try to save money by cutting down the Normal Schools. For when the state has assumed the charge of common-school education, it may certainly refuse to pay for Normal Schools, but it is no longer at liberty to decline to pay for the education of teachers in some other way. The plain truth of the matter is that there are only two ways of having skilled teachers at all. The state may either continue to follow its present plan, and by maintaining Normal Schools pay a moderate sum for the education of each teacher, and thus obtain the services of those who can acquire experience quickly and who bring to their work thorough training and earnest enthusiasm; or, the state may follow the other plan which is to discontinue the Normal Schools. But in that way the state does by no means avoid the necessity of paying for the education of its teachers. When there is no longer any opportunity for previous professional training, positions will be gradually filled with those who know neither the science nor the art of education. These persons may learn the work of their profession by long-continued practice. But during their years of apprenticeship they receive their pay from the state. The state pays for the education of its teachers by this plan as well; and it pays dearly for it. For the raw material that is wasted in this kind of apprenticeship, that is to say, the time and strength of child-life is a rather serious matter, although it cannot be expressed in dollars and cents. Thus, the whole question may be reduced to this: Shall the state offer and pay the teacher's salary for skilled labor only? Then we need Normal Schools. Or is the state willing to waste money by paying the teacher's salary to the unskilled novice? In that case Normal Schools are indeed unnecessary and education descends from the rank of a science to the low level of empirical routine work. Loud as the clamor has been in a few sections of the country, it has not even touched the strong basis of Normal-School interests, namely their firm connection with universal popular education. As long as Normal Schools cling to this connection and find their highest aim in making common-school education more thorough by supplying efficient teachers, they will find a firm support against all attacks in the educational earnestness of the American people.

In the discussion which followed the address, Mr. PHELPS, of Wisconsin, said that a paper of the interest and value of the one read should not be allowed to pass with the reading—that when the main idea of that paper, the idea that after all it is education which is the great wealth producer, is understood we shall have no more of the defective legislation which has been so common, and in consequence of which the salaries of faithful teachers have been reduced. This association is taking hold of this idea that we must have skilled labor—skilled labor in the school-room as well as elsewhere. It matters less what a child is taught than how he is taught. We can not present properly a course of study unless we have ourselves

been duly trained. The relation of education to labor is the most important topic before this Association. The value of labor depends on its skill in the school-room as well as elsewhere. We must then have training schools for teachers. These have in the last year been attacked along the whole line, and this partly because the interests of education have become so differentiated, so complex that many of the friends even of education are no longer sufficiently informed with reference to these interests to be able intelligently to defend them. We must have persons who can lead not only within but outside of the school-room.

There being no further remarks on the address of the President, the paper of Dr. E. C. HEWITT, of the Illinois Normal University, was read by Mr. S. H. WHITE, of Peoria; subject:—

THE RANGE AND LIMITS OF NORMAL-SCHOOL WORK.

Normal Schools have had an existence in this country for nearly forty years; their purpose is simple, and may be stated completely in a single, brief proposition, viz.:

To prepare young men and women for the work of Teaching and Managing Schools.

And, yet, simple as the purpose is, there are many problems concerning the Normal-School work that have never been satisfactorily solved. The managers of Normal Schools are by no means agreed as to the work that these Schools ought to attempt, nor as to the manner of carrying on the work that is attempted. The Normal Schools themselves are as varied in their constitution as in their manner of working. The term is applied to Schools established by the States and cities, having for their aim the sole object of the preparation of teachers; to private schools, large and small, whose aim is sometimes equally simple, and sometimes is so comprehensive that the General Department or the Classical Department or the Scientific Department or the Commercial Department, one or all together, overshadow or dwarf the *Normal* Department until one is constrained to wonder why the name *Normal* was ever applied. Nor have the Colleges, Seminaries, and Academies, in many instances, failed to add their Normal Departments, which are conspicuously paraded in their catalogues and Courses of Study. And, in the last few years, especially in some of the Western States, County Institutes, of from two to six weeks' duration, have been fond of taking the title of Normal Schools.

Now, in all this, there may be some aspects calculated to disturb the equanimity of the best and most intelligent friends of Normal Schools, and of those who have devoted many of the best years of their lives to this special work. But, to my mind, these facts have more to encourage and to cheer than to dishearten or to vex. Any one who has studied the history of Normal Schools in this country knows that, in the first years, there was nothing in the term to rouse the popular heart,—nothing tending to crowd the halls of an Institution or to bring money into the purses of its managers. It is freely granted that much of the work done in Normal Schools has been of an inferior character—neither clear in its aim, nor skillful in its execution. Even the best workers have had to “feel their

way" along, as it were, with but little in the way of principle or precedent for their guidance. And, still, in spite of all this, the facts above cited clearly show that, with all their crudeness, with all their short-comings and mistakes, Normal Schools have achieved a decided and substantial success. Men and women have wrought in them who, by their skill, by their earnestness, by their devotion and unselfishness, by the results that they have attained, have given to the name *Normal* a popularity that causes it to be coveted, and in some cases appropriated, by those whose right to use it is of the slightest. These workers, some where and in some way, have given to this term a money-value that, in the eyes of shrewd but unscrupulous men, has made it appear to be worth stealing.

Of course, these facts do not prove that Normal Schools have done all they might have done,—all they would have done had obstacles been less formidable, had their methods and systems been more carefully and rationally devised, and more skilfully executed. But, to my mind, they do show conclusively that, as a whole, our Normal Schools have done successful work in the past, which gives good reason to hope for still higher success in the future. We may well look for a more correct appreciation of the scope of their work, more of philosophical and wise planning, and more skill in execution; for many of the men and woman engaged in this work are people of good sense and earnest purposes, who are not slow in realizing the defects of their present work nor blind to the teachings of their past experience. And the results attained in the School of Experience, though they may be reached somewhat slowly, are clear and trustworthy when once obtained.

The great increase in the number of Schools called by the name of Normal indicates one other encouraging fact, in addition to that already stated, it shows that people are more and more coming to realize the truth that teaching is a work that requires *special* preparation,—that it is not enough simply to *know* a thing in order to be able to teach it effectually. A belief in this truth, on the part of a few, led to the establishment of these schools, in the face of prolonged, earnest, and even bitter, opposition. A clear realization of this truth, on the *part of the many*, will lead not only to a still further increase of the number of such Schools, but to a far more intelligent and efficient working-out of their purpose.

I am well aware that the topic assigned me for this paper is not a new one before this Association; a perusal of our printed volumes will show that, in some form or other, it has come up for treatment or discussion here, at almost every meeting since the Association has had an existence. Nor have the views and opinions presented upon it been, by any means, harmonious. Our reports show that Normal-School workers have disagreed on these questions *radically*; and their expressions not unfrequently have seemed to indicate differences greater, both in number and in degree, than really existed. I cannot, therefore, hope to please all in what I shall say, nor can I, in so brief a paper as this, express myself nor fortify my statements, so fully as I should like to do. But, I hope to state clearly some of the conclusions to which many years of observation, thinking, and practical work, in the Normal School, have led me.

No work whose purpose is not clearly understood, and kept constantly in

view can ever be well done. No matter how good his gun, nor how efficient the ammunition used, nor how skilfully the weapon may be cleaned and charged, the hunter who does not take good *aim* is likely to return with his game-bag poorly filled. As I have said, the sole and simple *aim* of the Normal School is to prepare its pupils for the work of teaching and managing Schools. And, where this aim is kept faithfully in view, the Normal School can hardly fail totally of its purpose, even though the work attempted should differ but little from that of the Academy or the Seminary. To this I attribute much of the success that some of our Normal Schools have achieved, in spite of the fact that their work has been almost entirely academic. At any rate, it has partaken of this character to a degree that is disgusting to the theorist, and that will by no means accord with the highest ideal of any intelligent Normal-School worker. Still, it must be evident to every thinker that any youth who learns Arithmetic, for instance, with the thought of teaching it again constantly before him, will be sure, on the completion of his work, to find his knowledge of Arithmetic taking an aspect in his own mind very different from what it would have presented, had he studied the subject for practical use only. The same is true of any other branch of School Study.

And I take occasion to remark that the aim of Normal Schools has regard to the most vital want of our whole School System. Among all the things that contribute to make up a good School, the good teacher is incomparably the most important factor. Nothing, in the house, the apparatus, the interest of the community, the System, the methods, nor in anything else can achieve the desired result, even in a reasonable degree, if the teacher be seriously lacking in native ability, in earnestness and integrity of purpose, or in a reasonable degree of preparation. But, if the teacher be right, a good degree of success may be confidently expected whatever else may be wanting. And, to-day, all over our country, really good teachers are not over plentiful. Applicants for teachers' places may swarm; but every one who has the responsibility of filling these places is painfully aware that candidates possessing exactly the requisites desired are not always forthcoming. To supply just this want is the purpose of our real Normal Schools; and this object is constantly to be considered, whatever the range and limits of the work done in such Schools.

Let me put this down, then, as one of the conclusions pertinent to our discussion:

I. Whatever may be chosen as the range and limit of the work of a Normal School, the one purpose of that work must be kept constantly in view.

The end to be accomplished by the Normal School being thus clearly seen, the kind and amount of work to be done in the way of preparation must be largely determined by the nature of the task confronting the young teacher when his preparation shall be completed. Here, probably, we shall gain something by dividing our subject. And, first, let us consider the MATERIAL on which he has to work.

This is incipient humanity. Children, with minds, hearts, wills, consciences, and bodies,—all, plastic and growing, are put into his hands, to be formed, as nearly as possible, into the highest ideal of manhood and woman.

hood. I am sure that I have not here stated the teacher's problem too broadly, although I am quite ready to grant that most of his time and efforts should be directed to developing the intellect of his pupils.

The human mind, then, is that upon which and for which the teacher is to work, chiefly. It would seem to be a matter of prime importance, therefore, that his work of preparation should include a careful study of the human mind, in respect to its laws and methods, both of work and of growth. A writer on Mental Science compared the human mind to a complicated musical instrument, as the piano or the organ; and he alludes to the absurdity of one's attempting to play upon such an instrument, or to teach another to do so, without a knowledge of its manner of working, on his own part. The absurdity is sufficiently patent in the case supposed, and may illustrate the preposterous blunder now making in thousands of Schools in our country, whose teachers are as thoroughly ignorant of Mental Science as it is possible for one to be in respect to an organ.

But the illustration here given is seriously at fault, inasmuch as it is quite inadequate. If the organ, in addition to the fact of its present delicacy and complexity, were constantly growing into an instrument differing in form and power and purpose, from the present instrument, as much as the full-grown oak differs from the tender sapling—in that case, it would more correctly represent that wonderful organism which the teacher has to deal with. Nor is this enough; if the musical performer were obliged to operate with not *one* only of these wonderful, growing instruments, but with twenty, or forty, or sixty of them;—and, further, if all these instruments, in addition to the grand, general characteristics of structure and movement in which they should agree, should be found, in the case of each individual, to possess certain peculiarities or personal idiosyncrasies whose presence should modify the operation of the general laws, in endless variety;—*then* might the work of that performer pretty fairly illustrate the task attempted by every teacher of a Common School.

Now, these aspects of the task itself cannot be greatly changed. But the preparation for the work, surely, should take them into account, and prepare the candidate to deal with them in the best possible manner. No Normal-School work is rightly planned that does not include the study of the human mind, both as regards the general laws of its action and growth, and some of its peculiar phases as well. To be sure, there is little time, and there may be small ability, to attempt the solution of that multitude of philosophical and speculative questions with which Psychology abounds. Nor need very much attention be given to the history of the science, nor to a review of the battles that the giants have fought on its fields. But the Normal student should get sure and clear possession of its settled principles and laws, and that, too, with special reference to their bearing upon the work of the school-room. I think it is much to be regretted that no master hand has yet, in brief, clear and compact form, embodied these principles in a text-book, which at the same time should assist the learner to understand how these principles may guide him in his work as a teacher. I can hardly conceive a greater service to the Normal-School workers of the country than the preparation of such a book.

Of course, the Normal student, in his study of the material on which he is to work, must not confine himself to the intellect alone. His study of Mental Science will not be complete if it ignore the Heart and the Will. Nor can we afford to neglect the domain of the *Conscience*. Could all our teachers be skilled in training their pupils to know the Right, to love the Right and to do the Right, and all this simply because Right is right; and would they exercise their skill faithfully in this direction for twenty years; the hearts of the next generation would not be pained as ours are by the daily story of fraud, corruption and outrage, in high places and low places, in public life and in private business, in the home and on the street, in the church and in the world.

Nor must pupils' bodies be forgotten; the laws of their structure and growth, of health and disease. We have made some progress of late in this direction; we are coming to feel that, no matter how keen the blade, it can do but little if the handle be weak or decayed; no matter how able or cultured the ethereal tenant, his comfort and usefulness will be seriously impaired, if he dwell in a house that hourly threatens to tumble on his head. So, the Normal student's study of the material on which he is to work should embrace the whole of *human nature*,—that entity of which so few acquire a thorough or a scientific knowledge; but of which people little versed in books sometimes show an astonishing practical knowledge,—a knowledge often designated by that nebulous term for a very real and valuable thing, viz., *Common Sense*.

We conclude, then, *that the range of Normal-School work must embrace a careful study of man and of the laws of his being, in respect both to action and to development.*

This study must regard *intellect, heart, will, conscience and body*; and its *limit* will be suggested by its purpose, viz., a preparation for the work of the teacher.

Secondly, let us consider the *MATTER* with which the teacher is to work. By this, I mean the Subjects he has to teach. It is very evident that he cannot teach others that which he does not know himself. But, here I am well aware that I am treading on disputed ground, and that many will disagree with conclusions to which I have deliberately come. Well, friends, "strike, but hear me." My opponents will say that the Normal student should have made himself master of the school studies before going to the Normal School; that the Normal School is to teach him *how* to teach, not *what* to teach; that the work of the Normal School should be purely professional—it cannot concern itself about increasing the pupil's knowledge of school studies. I take issue with such, on this question. I assert that one of the highest duties of the Normal School is to be sure that the student knows well anything that he proposes to teach to others. If he enter its portals well furnished with such knowledge, it is well; let the fact be clearly ascertained, and there is no need of further solicitude on that point.

But, it is certain that our Normal Schools cannot be *filled* with pupils of this class. Multitudes are actually teaching in the schools of every State, who do not understand the subjects they profess to teach; and we cannot expect to fill our Normal Schools, at present, with pupils better prepared in all those things on which the examination for a teacher's license will

test them than those who every month are passing this ordeal and receiving the license. These facts are a sufficient answer to any amount of theory, however beautiful it may be. And the most ready way to remedy **this state** of things seems to be, by sending out from our Normal Schools those who thoroughly understand what they are to teach, as well as how to teach it. And I will add that **this** deficient knowledge of the fundamental branches of Common-School study is **not** exhibited by those only who come from the country district, but by those from High School, Seminary and even College, as well. I *know* whereof I speak, and my **knowledge** on this point is not confined to one State.

Nor is the necessity of giving instruction in the branches of study in our Normal Schools—*academic* work, as it is called,—an evil so unmixed as some of our theorists would have us believe. If I want to show one how to teach Grammar, for instance, it is not altogether an evil that I am called to do it in teaching him Grammar by a correct method. I think it is certain that every one, when he undertakes to teach any subject thoughtfully, is likely to revert, in his mind, very frequently, to his own experience in learning that study; and, if his judgment approve the method that was taken with him, it will be easy for him to apply that method, with such modifications as may be necessary, to the case in hand.

But, we are told over and over again that the true work of the Normal School is *professional*. That is true; it ought to be professional, all of it. But is it absurd to assert that you can teach a young man cube root in such a way as to do the very best professional work towards preparing him to teach cube root to others? There is a marked difference between the professional work that prepares for teaching, and professional work that prepares for other professions. I think this difference is often overlooked. When a young theologian is receiving instruction in pastoral duties, for instance, his preceptor is not performing pastoral duty in giving that instruction. When the student of Medicine is pursuing the study of Pathology, his teacher is not, by the very act of teaching him, either investigating a case of disease or prescribing for a diseased patient. When the Professor of Law gives instruction in pleading, he is not in that very act preparing a brief nor addressing a jury. But, when a teacher in a Normal School gives instruction of any kind and on any subject, he is doing at that moment a branch of that very work which his pupil is studying to perform.

III. I conclude, then, that *Normal-School work must embrace in its range an assurance that the pupil is master of those subjects that he proposes to teach, at least so far as a good knowledge of their fundamental truths and principles is concerned.*

Before leaving this part of our discussion, two or three other things demand our attention. The power to express thought clearly, tersely and pointedly is a power that no man in public life can afford to regard with indifference. To the successful teacher, it is indispensable. Hence, in all Normal-School work, the cultivation of this power should receive the most careful attention. Not only should the pupil be taught *how* to express himself correctly, both orally and with the pen, but he should be *held* to correct and well-chosen expression in every exercise he undertakes. The

miserable fallacy contained in the words, "I know, but can't tell," should never be tolerated for a moment.

Once more; it must never be forgotten that the teacher impresses himself on his school almost as forcibly by his manners as by his words,—sometimes more forcibly in this way. If then we hope for a generation of courteous and gentle men and women, we must take measures to furnish the Schools with teachers who are courteous and refined in manner. Hence, the Normal School should train its teachers in this respect; and this will appear the more necessary when it is remembered that most of these pupils—the brightest and the best of them—often come from the homes of the hard-working and the poor,—homes in which little attention is paid to the graces of life. These young people need to be shown how to exhibit these graces themselves, and how, by precept and example, to develop them in others.

It has been said that whatever a nation desires to have appear in its people, it must put into its Schools. It is certain that this nation ought to wish to see far more intelligence among the masses of its citizens, respecting the government under which we live, and also in respect to those principles of social and business life, an observance of which would forever prevent the recurrence of such disgraceful scenes as have alarmed and disgusted us during the last month. Can our Normal Schools, then, be allowed to neglect the careful instruction of their pupils in the plain principles of social and political economy? They must be studied both as they relate to government—especially to our government—and as they relate to the life and business intercourse of men with their fellow-men.

IV. Hence, *the range of Normal-School work should give a prominent place to the expression of thought, to the cultivation of good manners and to instruction in the practical application of the principles of political and social science.*

Finally, let us consider the teacher's work in respect to its METHODS. Instruction in methods is the peculiar work of the Normal Schools; none question its place there. Some, as we have already said, seem to believe that these Schools have no business with anything else. But, I infer that many have a very mistaken notion in respect to what Normal Schools should do in regard to methods. They seem to suppose that there is some "best method" of teaching Arithmetic, Geography, etc.; of suppressing whispering or any other evil of the school-room; of awakening an interest in study, etc., etc. How often have I been asked to exhibit to an Institute, in half an hour, *my method* of teaching Arithmetic! It seems to be the opinion of these people that the pupil of a Normal School ought to come forth furnished with the one best method of doing each thing that he will have to do as a teacher. I need not take time to show to this audience the folly of all this.

The truth is that, in all this work, much more time should be given to underlying principles than to particular methods. Principles are unvarying; good methods are as numerous as the circumstances that attend each particular case. At best, the Normal teacher will need to caution his pupils not to attempt to use his methods without modification, in the schools that they will have to teach. This is the very mistake that often causes the partial or total failure of the Normal pupil. He must be taught to

recognize the principles that give efficiency to good methods, and to apply those principles in accordance with varying circumstances.

Neither will mere lecturing upon methods, nor the abstract study of methods, however well conducted, answer the purpose. The pupil must put his methods into practice under the eye of his teacher. This may be done having his own classmates, or some other group of his schoolmates, for his class; and, in many very good Normal Schools, nothing more is attempted. But it seems to me that such work must be very imperfect. I cannot think that a Normal School is fully equipped, if it has not a Model or Experimental School connected with it, in which the pupil may both observe the methods used in the actual instruction of children, and test his powers by actual teaching. I learned long since to base my estimate of a pupil's power to teach almost wholly upon the success of his efforts in the Model School. For, I have found by experience that many of my pupils who are brightest in their own recitations and who can tell very clearly how a thing ought to be taught, are by no means successful when they attempt actual teaching. This is the crucial test; and it should be endured under the teacher's eye, subject to his wise criticism and to the help of his practiced hand.

And, we must not forget that method has to do not with the work of instruction alone. It must be studied with reference to the management and control of Schools, and to the relations of the teacher to the community, no less than with reference to the work of instruction. And the same care in respect to the relation of principles to specific methods is needed here as in the matter of instruction.

V. The range of Normal-School work, then, must include a careful study of the principles that underlie the methods of instruction, of School management, and of intercourse of the teacher with his patrons. And, as far as possible, these methods should be tested in the presence of the Normal Instructor.

A word in conclusion. I have spoken of the Normal School as a place for the instruction and training of teachers. I have made no distinction in regard to the grade of the Schools those teachers are expected to have in charge. This was necessary, because our Normal Schools are ungraded, almost without exception. It is true that in some of our cities, the graduates of High Schools and others are put in charge of Special teachers to be trained for the work of particular grades. The work in such cases has reference almost wholly to methods; and such are usually termed, very properly, "Training Schools," and not Normal Schools. But who can doubt that our Normal Schools could do vastly better work, if they were graded? I think many of our great States have made a sad mistake in establishing several Normal Schools of the same grade, and to do the same work. It would have been better to have one Central Normal School with an extended course of study, to prepare teachers for the higher, graded Schools; and then to have several smaller Schools, with a much shorter course of study, to fit the teachers who will teach our country schools for a few terms, and then leave the business; and, who, knowing this, can never be induced to take a course of even two years at a Normal School in preparation for a service whose term is to be so brief. As it is,

these Normal Schools must always arrange their work on the basis of a kind of compromise.

The subject being open for discussion, Dr. SHANNON, State Superintendent of Missouri, said: "The position has been assumed on the one hand that the work of the Normal School should be strictly professional; on the other hand, that matter and method should be combined. Neither of these theories has been strictly carried out anywhere. I hold that it is impossible, especially in the West, to make Normal Schools strictly professional, except in the large cities. We have *means* of training pupils in our State Normal Schools, but until our Common-School work is much more thoroughly done we can not have the *material* upon which to work.'

Mr. MELL, of Kentucky, said that he agreed with the paper read, and agreed also with the gentleman from Missouri that the material for strictly professional training is not to be found outside of the city.

Mr. PHELPS, of Wisconsin, desired to correct an evidently false impression with reference to his views. It was not in contemplation to change the Normal Schools everywhere, and without regard to conditions, into professional schools; nor, in his opinion, did the term professional mean that the school should teach methods alone, but that the underlying principles, out of which methods grow, should be mastered.

Mr. S. H. WHITE asked permission of the gentleman to make a statement with reference to a plan projected in Illinois for purely professional work, which plan has as yet been wholly without success.

Mr. PHELPS responded that the fact only proved that Illinois was not ready for purely professional work.

Mr. SOLDAN, of St. Louis, said that he believed the subject had been discussed too much from an ideal standpoint, and that it would be possible at some future time to have Normal Schools which should be strictly professional. "There are two methods of gaining knowledge, one by experience, the other by studying the net results of the experience of others. The Normal School of St. Louis has been referred to. This school instructs at the beginning in studies which are also included in a high-school course, but these branches are studied in such a way as to prepare the pupil to teach to others that which he learns. Of course, we have technical training in method, so-called, but the one should no more be called professional than the other. The knowledge of political economy shows us that we can not expect to have for the compensation paid in lower grades first-class talent. First-class talent rises of necessity from the ranks. Normal Schools may all have a few studies which are strictly professional. Finally, we may have a work which shall be put into the hands of any one who asks, What is the science of teaching? There is as yet an unoccupied field in science."

Mr. JOHN AUGUSTUS WILLIAMS, of Harrodsburg, Ky., spoke of the four learned professions, and of their relative importance in the minds of peo-

ple in general. Mr. WILLIAMS spoke at some length, and with considerable humor, of the advantages which, as teachers, women possessed over men.

The hour for adjournment having arrived, the further discussion of the question, "Should the work of the Normal School be strictly professional?" was postponed to the next meeting.

The Chair announced the Committee on Nominations as follows: S. H. WHITE, of Illinois; Miss GRACE C. BIBB, of St. Louis; S. P. LUCY, of Kentucky.

Adjourned.

Second Day's Proceedings.

WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 15, 1877.

The Normal Department was called to order by its president, Mr. SOLDAN, of St. Louis, and proceeded immediately to the election of officers for the ensuing year, with the following result:

President—WM. F. PHELPS, of Wisconsin.

Vice-President—T. MARCELLUS MARSHALL, of West Virginia.

Secretary—GRACE C. BIBB, of St. Louis.

In the absence of Mr. J. C. GREENOUGH, of Rhode Island, his paper on *Common-School Studies in Normal Schools*, was, upon motion of Prof. PHELPS, read by its title and referred to the Committee on Publication.

COMMON-SCHOOL STUDIES IN NORMAL SCHOOLS.

The studies of the common school are not the same in the several States, and yet there is a good degree of uniformity; Reading, Writing, Language including Grammar, Arithmetic, and Geography, claim the first place.

The object of these schools is not to fit the pupil for one trade or profession, but to furnish the opportunity for a general preparation for any employment in which he may engage.

The normal schools are a part of the common-school system; they are the outgrowth of its needs and one of the prime elements of its progress. Those who are to instruct in our collegiate institutions need professional training. The science and art of teaching would be greatly advanced by the establishment of a school for this purpose. When a normal school of the grade required shall be fully equipped and generously maintained, the introduction of better methods of instruction into our higher institutions of learning, will not be left, as now, to the indirect influence of normal schools established for the improvement of our common schools, nor to the limited influence of German schools and universities.

The fact that our normal schools are for the common schools, gives im-

portance to the question, "What shall be done with the studies of the common school, in the normal school?" Before answering this question specifically, we may inquire whether the normal school shall include, in its course of study, branches not generally taught in the common school. Some hold that the normal school should help its pupil to gain a knowledge of the common-school branches, and furnish instruction in higher branches, and that when the pupil has thus gained sufficient scholarship and discipline, he is prepared to teach a common school. This view of the teacher's preparation is fatal to all steady advance in methods of elementary instruction; it substitutes academic instruction for normal training, or rather, it sets aside all professional training.

We must have teachers trained to teach the common school, or it will speedily deteriorate in methods of teaching and in efficiency. On the other hand, if a normal school merely teaches its pupils what they are to teach, and merely trains them in the methods of elementary instruction, teaching will be like a mechanical handicraft in which imitators will too often repeat in dull routine in their own schools, what they have been trained to do in the normal school. We need more than imitative artisans. In schools of lower grade, especially, we need the inventive genius of the artist. The teacher of every primary school should understand much that lies beyond her immediate field of effort, that she may intelligently plan her work in harmony with the subsequent studies of her pupils, and adapt her teaching to their present and future needs. The formation of the character of the teacher, both intellectual and moral, is an end of normal-school instruction, second to no other. Hence every normal school should include in its course what have been termed "culture studies." These should be those studies which are valuable both as means of culture and as means of a better understanding and appreciation of the studies of the common school. If all those who enter our normal schools, had honorably completed a course at a good high school, they would need little additional knowledge and discipline before entering upon the purely professional work of the normal school; but a large proportion of those who now enter, have not completed a good high-school course. Just how much culture is requisite, in addition to professional training, is not a question that admits of the same specific answer in every community. This, however, may be said:—the graduate of a normal school should be, in intellectual and moral power, aside from any professional skill he may have gained, superior to the average candidate for teaching, who is not a graduate. The attacks recently made upon normal schools, find in some sections valid ground in the lack of scholarship of normal graduates, as well as in the fact that the work of many normal schools is academic rather than professional.

We now return to the main question, "What shall be done with the studies of the common school in the normal school?"

The normal pupil should supplement his knowledge of these studies, acquire correct methods of teaching and an abiding enthusiasm in teaching.

The order of these studies and the method of teaching them in the normal school, should correspond to the work of the several grades of the common school. The relation of elementary knowledge,—a knowledge

of specific facts,—and scientific knowledge,—a knowledge of general truths reached by considering facts and used to explain facts,—should be clearly understood at the outset. One of the greatest advances in teaching which normal schools have effected, in some schools at least, is the proper separation of elementary and scientific knowledge, and the teaching of scientific truth by the inductive method. Instead of beginning the study of Arithmetic, or of Geography, or of any other science, with the memorizing of scientific statements, the pupil first considers the facts that lead to a knowledge of the scientific truth to be taught, and, by a natural process of induction, comes to the scientific truth.

The teachers of a normal school should arrange and train the pupils to teach a scientific outline of each of the studies authorized in the common schools. To do this, the facts that lead to each scientific truth to be taught, must be carefully selected, logically arranged, and skillfully presented; and whatever else may be omitted, the normal school should not fail to train those who are to teach, to the use of correct methods of teaching.

While awarding a generous approval of whatever excellence other methods may possess, a normal school should steadily strive to perfect that method of teaching which is based upon the laws of the human mind and vindicated by a wide experience. The common school is not so much for the acquisition of a certain amount of knowledge, as for gaining the ability to think accurately and to act promptly and wisely. The method by which the pupil is trained is more important than the facts which he commits to memory.

Among the methods most commonly employed in schools two are prominent; one may be called the book method, the other the natural method. By the one the author of the text-book is the real instructor of the class, by the other the teacher is the instructor; by the one the pupil begins with the statement of a book, by the other the pupil begins with the thing to be studied; by the one the child commits to memory statements which are or are not made clear to him at time of recitation, by the other the pupil is led to observe and reason for himself—to state his own ideas and then to commit to memory the correct statements of what he has learned; by the one verbal memory is primarily cultivated, by the other the mental powers are called into activity in the order of nature; by the one the pupil is told, by the other he learns for himself; by the one the pupil has words first and then ideas, by the other ideas first and then words; by the one the pupil is led to rely upon the statements of others, by the other the pupil is led to use his own powers and to rely upon his own observation, experience, and reasoning; by the one the pupil is ever learning only what others have discovered and recorded, by the other he is trained to discover and to state his own discoveries; by the one books may prevent independent thought, by the other books are used only as helps to observation, experience, and reasoning.

The natural method demands that the teacher understand the mind to be taught, the truth to be taught, and also that the teacher be trained to teach according to the method. It is the method used by all discoverers of truth, it is the only method by which the boundaries of human knowledge can be extended. It was employed by SOCRATES, it was the

method of BACON. By this method PESTALOZZI, FROEBEL and others revolutionized primary teaching in Germany and thus laid the foundation of that excellent system of public instruction to which Germany owes so much of her prestige and power. By his firm adherence to the natural method, and by his great skill in using it, AGASSIZ gave new impulse to the study of natural science and to the art of teaching in the United States.

Since all correct methods are based upon the laws of the human mind, the study of the mind and the application of the knowledge thus gained, must be an integral part of a normal-school course. In all the work of the school, the pupils should be led to form the habit of introspection, and of testing the value of teaching by its effect upon the mind. Mental philosophy and the philosophy of teaching will be incidentally taught in connection with the professional training of the teacher in the several studies; but a systematic course in mental science and in the philosophy of teaching, should be mastered late in the normal course, when the reflective faculties are better developed.

The class work in every study should be such as to give knowledge of the principles of teaching and skill in their application. A school for the preparation of teachers must be a training school as well as a school of instruction. Some of the conditions of a good model school are hard to be met. In some sections in which they have been fairly tried, they have been discarded. In many sections, they have never been established in connection with normal schools. A good proportion of our normal schools must, then, use their own classes as practice classes, and it is still an open question whether it is not best for every normal school to be also a training or practice school. In such a school the teacher, when he assigns a lesson, presents by topics the subjects to be taught by the pupils at a subsequent recitation, the teacher himself teaching so much as will enable the pupils to prepare to teach the topics assigned.

The time of the recitation hour is mainly spent in actual teaching, each pupil in turn teaching one or more topics to the class who take the position of learners. The mode of procedure may be thus outlined:

1. Present the real object of study to the mind of the pupil, whether the object be mental or material. If the object is material and cannot be presented in the class room, present an illustration.
2. By pertinent questions, call attention to that of the object which is to be taught, thus directing the mind of the pupil in a natural or logical analysis, and leading him to express the ideas occasioned.
3. Train the pupils to the correct use of language in expressing their ideas and thoughts.

I will not occupy time by stating modes of varying class exercises or modes of criticism.

Lecturing renders an incidental service; it should not assume much prominence in a normal course.

The teachers of a normal school should so appreciate the importance of common-school studies, and should so enthusiastically teach, as to awaken an abiding enthusiasm in the teaching of common-school studies. The impulse received at a normal school should be far more valuable than the knowledge gained.

The teaching of morality may not seem to be included under the title of this paper, yet such teaching is specified in the statute books of many States. The evils which have begun to overtake us as a people because of our lack of morality and integrity will not be remedied by attempting to teach morality in our schools, as history or grammar is taught. If our public schools are to contribute as they should to the moral elevation of the nation, the whole work of the school must be perceived, by both pupil and teacher, to rest on moral grounds. When a normal graduate takes charge of a school, he should be able and ready to show his pupils the rightfulness of doing the work required of them. He should administer the government of the school in accordance with recognized laws of right, and as a means to a true moral culture.

The normal school, then, must furnish daily instruction in the principles and in the application of the principles of morality by leading its pupils to direct their action, not in accordance with selfish motives, but in accordance with the eternal laws of duty and of right.

In consequence of the fact that interesting papers were to be read in other Departments, especially those of Mrs. KRAUS-BOELTE in the Elementary, and Pres. J. D. RUNKLE, in the Industrial Department, the Department adjourned until Thursday.

Third Day's Proceedings.

THURSDAY, AUGUST 16, 1877.

The Department met at 3 P. M. C. C. ROUNDS, Principal of the Normal School at Farmington, Maine, being absent, his paper, the following, was read by GRACE C. BIBB:—

ATTACKS ON NORMAL SCHOOLS.

It can not be counted as one among the glories of our Centennial year, that in several States of this Union, East and West, it has been marked by attacks upon our Normal-School system. Facing the triumphs of Machinery Hall and other departments of the great Exposition at Philadelphia, we could not repress a certain exultant delight at these evidences of the intelligence of the American people. We pointed to them as results of popular education, and felt that as teachers we had a right to a share in the triumph. That Pedagogy is a Science; that Teaching is a profession; that Normal Schools have the same inherent right as other professional Schools to honorable regard, we have come to consider so evidently true, that these attacks excite in us emotions of a nature opposite to those aroused by the triumphs.

of American intelligence instanced above. It makes no difference, so far as this is concerned, whether the attack be due to a failure on the part of the Normal Schools themselves to act up to the full possibilities of their high mission, or to a want of appreciation and intelligence in the attacking party.

The increase of Normal Schools from 53, with 178 teachers and 10,028 pupils in 1870, to 137, with 1,031 teachers and 29,105 pupils in 1875, and the great advance in various parts of our country in the organization of public-school systems, are encouraging omens. In the United States the belief that the education of the people is a State interest, that the State must sustain and control it, and that it is the right and duty of the State to provide for the preparation of teachers for its Schools, has such power that most of these recent attacks have for the present failed. I do not propose to retrace the lines of argument, in defence of the Normal Schools, which have been followed in legislative assemblies and in the public press. It would surely be bringing my coals to Newcastle—or Pittsburg—to defend and enforce the Normal School idea to this audience. I propose, rather, very briefly to review the main points of attack, to give all due recognition to the truths which they may contain, and to take counsel of friends as well as of foes in determining the lesson to be derived. It is not the part of wisdom to content ourselves with merely defensive warfare. All reforms are aggressive. If the attacks come from a misunderstanding of the purpose and the work of the Normal School, we must take care that throughout our land, to the remotest hamlet therein, these be understood; if they come from a lack of other agencies needed to supplement their work and render it efficient, we must take care that these agencies be supplied until we have a complete organization of the means for professional training, and for the efficient working of trained teachers; if they come from defects in the present organization of Normal Schools, we must take care that these defects be removed; that Normal Schools be made the embodiment of the freshest, broadest, and deepest thought on education, and the illustration of the most successful educational processes; that they keep step with all true workers in the cause and lead the column on every advancing line.

The main points urged in these attacks may be briefly stated thus:—

1. The abandonment of Normal Schools would be a great pecuniary gain to the State.
2. The State affords ample means in academic and public schools for supplying teachers.
3. The implied contract of pupils to teach in public schools is disregarded.
4. Normal Schools do not supply a considerable portion of teachers employed in public schools.
5. Normal Schools are graded or Academic Schools with teachers' classes.

In some States other points were presented, but, so far as I know, these were special, and hence are not treated in the general discussion.

It ought to be easy to show that the abandonment of the Normal School would result in infinite loss rather than gain, from the diminished efficiency of the public schools, and that the Normal School does a work in the preparation of teachers which other Schools can not do. In these first and second points is involved the entire theory of the expediency and the necessity for professional training, and the discussion of these is fundamental to the very existence of the Normal School. So far as successful attack can be made on

this line, the Normal School is largely to blame for not having more successfully asserted itself, in theory as well as in practice.

The third point of attack, that the contract of pupils to teach in the public schools is disregarded, must be answered by an appeal to facts. In Maine, though there are few individual instances of failures to keep this contract, careful inquiry shows that on an average it is much more than kept by graduates of the School. I believe the same holds true in other States. At any rate, this does not invalidate the right of the Normal School to be.

It is charged in the fourth place that the Normal Schools do not supply a considerable portion of the teachers employed in Common Schools. True, and necessarily true. In 1875 there were employed in the Public Schools of the United States* 249,444 teachers. The total number of graduates of all the Normal Schools of the country for the same year was *2206. Calling the average school life of American teachers three years, more than 83,000 teachers will be required to supply the annual waste. To meet this demand, the present number of Normal Schools must be immediately multiplied nearly forty times.

Again, the rural School can not have a professional teacher, for it can not furnish regular employment and a home. Much teaching in Normal Schools is done by undergraduates of Normal Schools, and some by graduates; but as a rule the graduates of the Normal School will seek a permanent place. The average length of the School year in the United States is only 125 days. A professional teacher must have employment for at least 9 or 10 months in the year. In only six States is the average length of the School year, including both city and country schools, even eight months. In most of the rural Schools the vacations continue more than half the year, and the teacher must supplement his labor in the school-room with some other industry. Young men and young women will not go through two or three years' training for so precarious a life. To meet the demands of the rural Schools other agencies must be employed.

It is charged in the fifth place that Normal Schools are graded Schools or Academies with teachers' classes, in other words that they are not professional Schools. This point deserves careful consideration. Normal School teachers themselves, and other earnest and intelligent friends of education, have for years discussed the question as to whether the Normal School should be made wholly professional, and have not been able thus far to come to an agreement. While the question was one for ourselves alone, we might indulge in this discussion at our own will, but all the signs point to the necessity for coming to some practical conclusion. In States in which attacks upon Normal Schools have been most effectually repelled for the time, the warning has been distinctly given that their work must be so ordered that charges of their non-professional character can not be renewed. A thoughtful editorial in Harper's Weekly, reviewing the attack upon the New-York Normal Schools in the Legislature of that State, distinctly makes two points: 1st, That Normal Schools will be sustained as essential to an efficient Public-School system, and 2nd, that they will be compelled here-

* Report Com. Ed., 1875, pp 549, 591.

after to confine themselves more closely to the work of preparing teachers. The New-York State Association of Commissioners and Superintendents, at a recent meeting, adopted among their resolutions one

"That the Normal Schools should be supported and *maintained* by the State as *professional Schools*."

In the editorial columns of the Pennsylvania School Journal I find the following: "As a friend of the Normal Schools we are free to acknowledge that ours are far from being all that we would have them. They have done and are doing a noble work; but the time has come for them to assume a more distinctly professional character, and to engage much more largely in distinctive professional work. Their course in teaching must be enlarged, and the Model Schools in connection with them must be re-organized and made to better answer the end for which they are established. If the Normal Schools do not enter upon this course of improvement for themselves, they will be *compelled* to do it." And we have but to refer to the published proceedings of this Association, in successive years, for proof that the Normal-School problem is in other States, as well as in these, one of the most unsettled problems with which we have to deal.

Withoutspeaking further of the points of the attack upon Normal Schools and of the causes of these attacks, we pass to consider the means of strengthening them, of enabling them more efficiently to do their appropriate work. They must be strengthened not only in themselves but in all their approaches so as to be practically invulnerable. We must bear in mind that the Normal School is not the sole agency, but one of many agencies, for advancing the work of education; that however good its work may be in itself, this may largely be made of no effect by a faulty organization of the educational forces of the State. For instance in many of our States its work is seriously obstructed by the existence of the so-called district system, and by the lack of efficient and professional inspection.

All attempts of the Normal School to train teachers merely for rural Schools must fail, unless it is to become merely an institute. Its true work is to train teachers for permanent positions. It must concentrate its efforts upon points where it can aid in building up systems of Schools which shall be a permanent gain to the localities in which they are placed. Every such School becomes in some sense a repetition of the Normal School, for from it will be drawn teachers for the neighboring Schools. Carefully holding the points which it gets, and through these reaching others, its course will be marked by steady advance, and gradually the influence of improved methods of education will extend through the land.

Since Normal Schools were first established, great changes have taken place in American education. Primary education has received almost its entire development; modes of School organization and Supervision have changed; School laws have developed from few and scattered enactments into School codes; School architecture and all the material appliances for education have been vastly improved; in short this period has been marked by the revelation to our people of a Science and an art of Education. In these grand changes perhaps the Normal Schools have been the most efficient instruments, but they have often set in motion currents of

influence which have moved beyond them. In the rapid changes of our American systems it is necessary for the Normal Schools often to *orient* themselves, if they would always stand in the centre of the movement and command all the radiating lines.

The necessity of a re-adjustment to present conditions is already shown in the papers and discussions of this Association, especially in the years 1870 1871, and 1872. Some of the most eminent men in the profession, have recommended the establishment of elementary Normal Schools of a lower grade, and of strictly professional Schools of a higher grade. So far as I have been able to learn, nothing has come of these recommendations. The clear inference is that it is useless, for the present, to look to the organization of new agencies. While we wait occasion presses. We must work with what we have, transforming it so far as necessary to make it the instrument we need. We have and must use the Teachers' Institute or Convention of one week, for arousing interest; we have and must use and aid to the utmost the Normal Institute of four to six weeks for such training as the teacher of a rural School can be induced to take; the Normal School must make it its distinct and special aim to train professional teachers and Superintendents. To accomplish this end it must in its instruction trace the historical development of education and carefully study its present condition; it must study the Scientific principles underlying all educational processes, and ground all its teachings and its work upon the deepest principles of philosophy; it must carefully and critically observe and study modes of School organization and supervision, and all the objective means and material for instruction, as school-houses, apparatus, &c.; and finally it must supply the means for illustration and confirmation of all the principles which it teaches, by practice in teaching under skilful direction and sympathetic and searching criticism.

Many of our Normal Schools are, as at present organized, mainly academic. However the professional spirit may animate the academic work, the strictly professional study constitutes but a small part of the study of the course, and is postponed till the last. That which should be an inspiring breath throughout the course, is but the expiration which marks its close. This is one of the chief reasons why Normal Schools are so often disgraced by the teaching of undergraduates, and why pupils not completing the course so often carry no inspiration from the School and exert no influence for it nor for education. The mental processes involved in acquiring and in communicating knowledge are so different one from the other, that they can not well be studied at the same time. Hence it is necessary that the pupil in all stages of his course make a distinct study of his modes of thought, of the principles of Pedagogy and of method, or there is danger that he become a merely mechanical copyist of the methods of his teacher.

The Normal School must be organized not from the academic point of view, adding so much of the professional as we can, but from the professional point of view, adding so much of the academic as we must. This is not the old question as to whether the Normal School shall be entirely professional. I am not sure that I know what that means. But it must be admitted that, considered with reference to the work which the Normal

School has to do, a certain determinate amount and character of professional study is needed to constitute it a Normal School at all. This must be accomplished. Time must be found by cutting down merely academic work. In our ambition most of us now attempt, in two years' study, to comprise most of the English studies of a Grammar-School and a High-School course. It is true that with some of these studies we presume a familiarity on the part of the pupil. Yet at best we are likely to get scholars rather than teachers; at worst, cram instead of culture. We must not sacrifice professional study to general literature and higher branches of physical science. The Normal School must ever remember its special aim, which is not that of the School for literary culture nor of the Scientific School, however desirable a wide knowledge of literature and of science may be for the teacher.

That there is a lack in practical training, as well as in theoretical, is shown by the fact that of the 137 Normal Schools of the United States, only 78 report departments for practical training.

The organization of the work of Normal Schools which will enable them most successfully to vindicate their claim to be called professional Schools, and most effectually to repel assault, may then be considered under the three heads of Philosophy, History, and Practice.

On the side of Philosophy we shall most of us be found rather weak, and here we ought to be especially strong. Pedagogy—we have not yet fairly settled upon the name for the science of Education—is but the application of Philosophy to human culture, and the world has a right to expect the soundest and truest Philosophy to proceed from the schools of Pedagogy. Were this so, long ere this some reproaches would have been removed from our philosophical and pedagogical literature, and our teaching would have been more fruitful of results. The solely empirical method of treating Pedagogy can give us only still more of books upon minute details of method, of books made for teachers who can not, or are not allowed, to think. Every new advance in Pedagogy has been a fresh application of Philosophy to education. The principles thus struck out, in the hands of teachers destitute of philosophical culture or trained powers of thought, become but a new routine; the life-giving spirit of philosophy becomes a life-destroying letter of mechanical imitation.

Merely gathering up results which even the soundest thinkers have formulated in classifications and in laws, will not suffice. Pupils must also test their powers upon the solution of problems; they must be led to make classifications, and derive laws, for themselves. Power will thus be developed to deal with questions in pedagogy, which can be developed in no other way.

On the side of History the work of the Normal School should be at once broadened. This must be a history of culture and of the development of education. Thus alone can teachers come to appreciate and understand fully our present systems of education and their relation to the past and to other countries; thus alone can we make advances from year to year and from age to age. It is to the want of just such knowledge as this that must be ascribed much of the controversy which now endangers popular education in this country. For to what else can we ascribe the proposi-

tion from the President of Harvard for the re-establishment of rate bills for High-School education; from the Evening Post, edited by WM. CULLEN BRYANT, that State aid be withdrawn from all but the elementary Schools; from grave D. D.'s, that the public High School be replaced by denominational Schools? The National Education League of England—to the Secretary of which, by the way, it was left to write the best account of the School systems of the United States—is to-day fighting the battle which was fought here a generation ago, and which these men and journals, and such as these, oblivious of the past, or of any present but their own, are asking us to fight over again.

Under this lead will come a more thorough and critical study of School law, and of its relation to educational progress. A fairly cultivated common sense will help us greatly here. For instance, in most of our States, the State School fund is distributed on the absurd basis of the School census, regardless of attendance, and our School year is 125 days. My neighbors in the Province of New Brunswick, establishing a free Public School system first in 1872, and distributing their government money on the basis of average attendance and length of School, reached in 1876 an average School year, throughout the Province, of $37\frac{1}{2}$ weeks, and our neighbors in Ontario, by pursuing a similar plan, twenty years ago reached an average of over 10 months to the School year.

If the Normal School does not deal with such questions as these, of whom can consideration of them be demanded? If the Normal School does not see to the formation, in the minds of its pupils, of correct opinions upon these questions of School history and School polity, of whom can the formation of such opinions be expected? Had the thousands of men and women in our country who have passed through the courses of study in our Normal Schools received the needed training in this direction, the battle would already have been won and successful attack would have become impossible.

It is a question whether the School which makes no provision for practical training in methods of teaching, can really be called a professional School. Certainly all other professional Schools recognize the practical element as an essential one. Yet nearly half the Normal Schools of the United States report nothing of this kind. However thorough may be the drill in practice in teaching the branches comprised in their course of study, under such an organization there can be no training in methods of primary teaching. There may be difference of opinion as to the range of work which should be comprised in the Training or Model School. Certainly all grades of primary work must be included. The Kindergarten is becoming a part of our public-school system, and deserves, also, recognition here. This *weak* place in the present organization of our Normal Schools I leave without further discussion.

In this place may be considered the Pedagogical Museum, a collection of the means for illustration like that in the Normal School at Toronto, like the admirable Russian exhibit at Philadelphia. Such a Museum should be found in every Normal School and should be carefully studied.

Thus I have tried to present such an organization of the work of the

Normal School as will vindicate its claim to a place among professional Schools, and strengthen it against successful attack. This work I believe we can do better than we have done it. In even two years' time, it is possible to make of strong and thoughtful young men and young women—and all else we should reject—teachers well grounded in the scholarship needed for their work, so established in principles and so accustomed to thought as to be able to separate the true from the false in educational theory, so familiar with the general course of educational history as to recognize old falsehoods and fallacies in whatever disguises, and, looking before and after, to see lying in clear light the true road of progress; so trained in practical application as to command the best methods and to ground them on true principles of philosophy. Such graduates as these are a strong tower of defence; others are reeds shaken by every wind and a failure in every trial.

A witty Frenchman said, in one of the troublous periods of French history, "We are despised because we are on our knees. Suppose we get up." We need to get up. At the late meeting of the American Institute of Instruction, the President presented, among others, the following proposition, for the consideration of the Institute:—"All instructors charged with the education of children and youth, should be selected on the ground of especial talents, professional training, and aptness to teach." The Committee to which this was referred, after long deliberation, fearing protest against the words "professional training," reported the following, which was, without discussion, adopted:—

"All instructors charged with the education of children and youth, should be selected on account of excellence of character, special talents, adequate acquisitions, and known or presumed skill in teaching." New England dare not place teaching beside the other professions! Dare this Association do it?

Look beyond our eastern border. Says the Hon. T. H. RAND, Sup't of Education for the Province of New Brunswick, in a letter received since the preceding portion of this paper was written, "Seventy-five per cent (fully) of our teachers now in the service have been trained. Since 1872, none have been commissioned as regular teachers except those trained at our own or some other recognized Normal School. But in consequence of our inability to provide a full supply of such persons at once, untrained persons are authorized by the Board of Education to teach in *certain districts* for a period of *one year*. (Regular teachers are licensed for the Province, and during good behavior.) Most of these local licensees find their way to the Normal School after teaching one year.

Of 450 persons ($\frac{1}{3}$ men) who have attended our Normal School since Jan. 1, 1872, 440 have taught 85 per cent of the time since they were commissioned by the Board of Education. * * * * *

If the faculty of instructors (of the Normal School) does not rank any student-teacher as 'fair,' 'good,' or 'superior,' in professional worth, he or she is not eligible to examination for license. The examination in *Scholarship* is conducted by papers set by the Chief Sup't, and the answers are estimated by four examiners of the Province (Professors of the University),

and the licenses are issued on their reports, such licenses bearing the professional standing of the holder as estimated by the Normal School."

It will be observed that upon Scholarship, even thus carefully determined, licenses to teach are not issued, and that in the final award the Normal School passes judgment only upon the character of professional work. It may also be added that Graduates in Arts of a chartered College or University, who have not been in attendance as regular student-teachers at the Provincial Normal School or at a recognized Normal or Training School of some other country, shall be required to give practical illustration of their knowledge of method before the Principal of the Normal School, who shall report to the Chief Sup't his estimate of the same.

A work has been in progress for a few years, over the border, to which we may well give heed. It is easy to raise the cry of despotism and centralization, it is not easy to educate a nation. Let us beware lest we sacrifice too much to political cant; lest we let our neighbors steal all our sunrise.

Striving thus more firmly to establish teaching upon a professional basis, we have a right to demand a wider recognition. It is certainly a very strange thing that a profession outnumbering any other if not all others in our land, should not be recognized by our Colleges and Universities. The leading Associations of English teachers are moving Oxford and Cambridge to establish chairs of Pedagogy, and the demand is powerfully seconded by the London Times. The Universities of Edinburg and Aberdeen have such chairs already. The German Universities have them, and even Finland puts us to shame. I trust this meeting of the National Association will not close without taking steps to memorialize at least one College in every State to establish a chair, or at the least a lectureship, of Pedagogy.

As a first measure of defence, we must plant this germinal idea of the necessity for professional training or study (not of absolute necessity in a Normal School) in the minds of all teachers, and through them in the minds of the intelligent public. Then may we form an American pedagogical literature which will enable us to look at a German catalogue without shame. Then may we find adequate recognition, by our great libraries, of the claims of pedagogy, and *not* find all its books in this department resting upon the shelves. Then may the reproach that teachers alone of professional men will not buy professional books," be removed. Then shall we respect ourselves and thus command the respect of others.

S. H. WHITE, of Illinois, then read the following paper on

A FEW QUERIES CONCERNING SOME OF THE DETAILS OF NORMAL-SCHOOL WORK.

The object of this paper is to learn from others engaged in normal-school work their views concerning some of the questions which arise in school management, and their experience in connection with them. The plan first suggested was to spend an hour in a somewhat informal exchange of views upon such topics as might be presented. It was afterward thought,

however, that a somewhat formal presentation of points might profitably precede the discussion.

In the progress of this paper certain views are expressed concerning the queries raised, rather to pave the way to a ready expression of opinion upon them than merely for the sake of advancing an individual opinion.

It is assumed at the outset that a normal school should have a character so distinctively its own that its object can be clearly seen from its work by an intelligent observer. Normal schools suffer because they do, to a considerable extent, the same work in the same way that good schools for general instruction do it. The low attainments of the teachers of the country make this necessary, but the object for which they traverse this common ground should determine their method and this method should point clearly to the work of teaching.

To illustrate, let a botanist, a geologist, and an entomologist, all explore the same region. What will be the result? There will be a certain amount of general information concerning the field which all will possess. Beyond that their knowledges diverge. Each has given himself to the study of those features which belong to his specialty. That has been uppermost in his mind, and, as a result, he has whatever will be of service to him as a specialist. In order to secure his purpose, each one has worked in his peculiar way.

Again, take a piece of rock from the ledge. The chemist resolves it into its constituent parts with a view to discover the amount and value of each; the architect studies it with a view to ascertain its hardness, power to withstand pressure, and its durability; the naturalist, to learn the story it tells of organic life in some former age. They study precisely the same object, each to gain from it information for his own use, and each pursuing a method peculiarly his own. No one of them could have gained the desired information by adopting the plan of another.

So with the pupil in the normal school. His objective point is the school-room. Having some appreciation of the teacher's work, he studies any one of the branches he is to teach for the purpose of being able to impart as well as to possess its knowledge. His forms of expression, his analysis, his methods are peculiarly adapted to teaching children, and are different from those of one striving simply to know for himself.

Wherever normal schools are compelled to traverse the same ground as other schools, it should be done in consonance with the idea of instruction instead of education simply.

QUERIES.

1. Is it wise for normal schools to undertake more than is necessary to secure their legitimate results?

This is done in two ways; by admitting to their privileges, on payment of tuition, persons who have no intention to teach; and by establishing departments which, practically, have no part in the special work of the school. By these practices they bring upon themselves the charge of superfluity in that they do work which is provided for elsewhere, and, at the same time, they incur the jealousy of other schools.

2. Presuming that pupils are admitted on an examination, does subsequent experience show that this method is satisfactory?

Applicants come from different schools, or from no school recently, and with various abilities and habits of study. One student of limited ability fresh from the drill of a graded school will stand higher than another of older years and superior talent from a country school. To admit the former and reject the latter would be a mistake. Would it be well to give an additional test, as the sustaining of a certain standard of excellence for the first term after examination before pupils shall be considered fully matriculated. This would give an opportunity to discover the real abilities of the applicants, and would result in more nearly exact justice to them and greatly to the relief of the school.

3. Is the excellence of the work done during the term determined by an examination at its close, or by that in connection with a record from day to day during the term? If the former, does not the practice encourage a neglect of study during the first part of the term with a view to cramming to make up the deficiency at its close? Does it not also foster a spirit of indifference in the daily recitations? If the latter, are there not some who will study merely for the purpose of making a good recitation, knowing that its record will be of service in counteracting a poor examination average at some future time? What would be the effect of making each a test, a failure in either to be fatal?

4. If a study extends through two or more terms, should a failure in the work of one prevent an advance to the work of the next, or should the pupil be allowed to go forward with a chance to retrieve his loss?

Since the larger part of the instruction given in the common schools is of a primary character, the normal schools should confine themselves to the study of elementary principles till they are made reasonably familiar, to the exclusion of the higher branches. By doing this it improves the character of the instruction given by its pupils, it strengthens itself in public estimation by the greater excellence of their work, and it gives many an opportunity carefully to consider whether the teacher's profession is in reality what they expected, and, perhaps, to conclude that some other employment would, after all, be more congenial to their tastes.

In presenting queries concerning the school of practice, it is assumed that this department should form an important part in any course of instruction for teachers. One of the essential requisites of the teacher is an ability to apply his theories in the practical work of the school-room. In popular estimation his success is determined by his ability to manage his school, rather than by his amount of knowledge or his power to instruct. As the world goes, good scholarship in a teacher, even though it be supported by correct theories, is too liable to fail at the outset. Theories are fine things to learn and talk about, but when the time comes for work they are too apt to be laid aside and the old ways resorted to. Hence our students are apt to forget their normal methods and bring upon our schools the charge of being pretences.

In the contest for success a man is not apt to venture the use of weapons with which he is only theoretically familiar, but takes those of which he has a practical knowledge. The young teacher needs an opportunity to

test himself and his plans, to grow strong, before he steps before the public to stand its criticisms. Every process, every plan should have been tried; every step should be mainly a repetition, not a venture.

The training room gives rise to a few perplexing situations. In many of the normal schools there are pupils who remain for only a few weeks or a term, the majority of them less than a year. They go out to teach and bear with them very largely the reputation of the school.

5. What can be done for them by way of practice work?

It seems to me that the time spent in the training room will contribute more to their immediate success than the same time spent in any other way, and that they might better take the practice work even though they are to remain in the school but a short time. It is better for them to be strengthened in all respects so far as the time will permit, than to be allowed to go out weak in any one. This is by far the hardest test they have to stand. It may develop a complete and surprising incapacity for a very important part of their work. If they are to be failures, it is certainly better every way that they be discovered to be such here than after they go out to their several schools.

6. To what extent should the training room be used by the pupil teacher?

The customs of different schools vary greatly. In some it is a place for observation; in some the pupils are intrusted with the instruction of a class in a single study, perhaps in all its studies; in some they are expected to undertake the instruction, management, and all the responsibilities of a whole school. As has been already stated, the more extensive a teacher's experimental knowledge of his work beforehand, the better. It is better that he knows practically all its features, than only a part of them.

The training room furnishes excellent opportunity to learn the spirit of pupil teachers. If they are impressed with the value of its practice, if it is understood that it is as much a part of the course as any other study and that the school does not hold itself responsible for the failure of any who have not successfully stood its tests, there will be a readiness, in most cases a desire to undertake it. The opportunity should not be regarded one for mere formal practice, but for the exhibition of real merit which must be shown as much here as in any other study. Failure here is as surely fatal as failure anywhere else.

7. Is it desirable as a condition for graduation that a pupil shall have attained a certain standard of excellence in every part of the course, or is it sufficient for him to have reached a prescribed average of all its parts?

To require the former renders him liable to rejection on account of failure in some study for which there is no natural ability, and in which it seems impossible to gain the desired proficiency. To adopt the latter encourages a devotion to favorite studies and a neglect of those for which there is an aversion. In general the former course seems preferable.

8. What should be the character of the graduation exercises?

Quite generally the graduate presents an oration or essay on some subject fitted to show his literary and elocutionary abilities. It may be meritorious but is not specially educational or professional.

It is claimed that normal schools are created for an especial purpose, for

an object which no other institution can accomplish. If such be the case their work should, from the outset, show a bias toward this especial purpose and the student's last exercise under its direction should be the unmistakable fruit of his professional instruction. The universal custom of schools of law, medicine, science, and others of like character, is to require of their graduates an essay or other production having close relation to his course of study. To the extent that normal schools fail to realize this idea in their work, they fail to meet the common and reasonable expectation of them as professional schools.

9. Should there be positions of honor in the graduation exercises, as valedictorian, &c.?

These positions are frequently awarded as the result of excellence in work during the course. The tendency of the custom is, to direct the pupil's attention away from the true object of his study. Instead of being simply a testimonial of merit earned by superior excellence in his course, it comes to be the object striven for. When it is gained or lost his ambition rests and is apt to wait for some other incentive to spasmodic action. The custom is objectionable on account of the strifes, jealousies, and ill-feelings it excites between members of the class, and of the charges of unfairness which are made against the teacher.

If it is desirable to give opportunity for distinction, let there be prescribed a plan of work outside the regular course, as the study of some epoch of educational history, or of some department of pedagogics, the accomplishment of which shall bring to the student an especial honor which might be noted in the catalogue. Such a plan would at least have the merit of a possibility for more than one to win the honor.

DISCUSSION.

THE HON. R. D. SHANNON, of Missouri, said: That the Normal School question naturally covered a great deal of ground—which of course could not be altogether gone over in discussion. Unless it can be demonstrated to our legislators that Normal Schools are a source of general benefit, otherwise State legislatures have no right to make appropriation of public money for their support. All arguments against Normal Schools can be readily answered. There are three objections to Normal Schools, one that they are local institutions; second, that they do not educate teachers. It is stated in the third place that the teachers graduated from the Normal School make failures in teaching. All these points were discussed by Dr. SHANNON and their fallacy shown by reference to existing facts in his own State.

MR. SOLDAN, of St. Louis, said: That, in his opinion, the objection that persons do not make teaching a life work, urged as an objection to Normal Schools, is founded on absurdity. In no other profession is it expected that persons should bind themselves for life to their professions. Talent will always seek the channels where greatest inducements are offered; this is too well known a principle of political economy to need further

statement, and when superior inducements are held out teachers will leave their profession for some other. The gentleman also discussed the question as to whether Normal-School graduates were more successful than others, and proved by statistics of the schools of St. Louis that the very large proportion of Normal graduates filling the highest positions in that city was proof of their superior excellence.

Mr. SMITH, of Buffalo, asked if there was not a well-founded objection to Normal Schools because they allow pupils to go out as representatives of Normal Schools who have not been sufficiently long in the School to understand its methods.

Dr. SHANNON replied to the question.

Mr. J. M. HARLEY, of Indian Territory, said: "How can you expect a man of ability to remain in a profession in which he could hardly hope to make a respectable living for himself and his family. Could you engage a first-class lawyer, a first-class physician, for the amount paid to teachers? The profession must be elevated by increasing the compensation of teachers."

The President remarked that the discussion was on the paper of Mr. ROUNDS and that of Mr. WHITE.

Mr. White, of Illinois, said, that if children are to suffer from the frequent change of teachers which does certainly occur, then by all means let us attempt to make this change as little detrimental as may be by making the teachers as competent as possible. Further, it will probably be found that no greater a proportion of teachers than of any other profession will be found on the retired list.

Prof. R. B. WARDER, of the University of Cincinnati, asked for suggestions with reference to the danger incurred by Normal Schools through their graduating too many pupils.

Mr. SOLDAN, of St. Louis, replied by stating that this matter was largely under the control of the Principals of Normal Schools and referred to the manner in which this matter has been managed in the St. Louis Normal School and in consequence of which this difficulty has been completely obviated and at the same time the standard of the School had been materially raised.

Mr. SOLDAN also spoke of the matter of marking recitations, and explained in answer to Mr. S. H. WHITE the method adopted in the School under his charge.

Mr. WHITE, of Illinois, spoke further of the manner in which the teacher is regarded by the State and in which he is sent about from one place to another as not calculated to keep the teacher for any great length of time in the profession.

Mr. WILLIAMS, of Kentucky, said that he would make a distinction between Normal Instruction and Normal Schools proper, and was not sure that the end of Normal instruction might not be best attained by chairs of Didactics in Higher Institutions. The work of the teacher should be the application of general principles to particular cases—and explained

the mental difficulties underlying the frequent complaints of pupils with reference to difficulties—as that they can't understand, that they know but can't tell, etc.

A general discussion upon particular economic arrangements in different Normal Schools was participated in by Messrs. White of Illinois, Warder of Ohio, Shannon of Missouri, Wright of Iowa, Williams of Kentucky, and Scott of Kentucky.

Adjourned.

ELEMENTARY DEPARTMENT.

First Day's Proceedings.

TUESDAY, AUGUST 14, 1877.

The Department of Elementary Schools met in the Auditorium of Lieberkranz Hall at 3 P. M. The President, the Hon. HOWARD A. M. HENDERSON, of Kentucky, made some extemporaneous opening remarks. The following abstract of these remarks is taken from the *Louisville Courier-Journal*.

OPENING REMARKS.

The giant oaks that register the chronology of centuries in their gnarled trunks, and toss the tempest triumphantly from their boughs, have their anchorage in roots stuck into the everlasting rocks. These superstructures that are designed to withstand the ravages of time and grow green beneath the moss of ages, have their foundations struck broad and deep. So the splendid growth and edifice of education must strike far beneath the surface and repose upon the elements. It would be the supreme of folly to expend large resources upon frescos and stuccos and carved stone in a building built upon the shifting sands. Equally silly is the labor bestowed upon the mere decorative arts of education to the total neglect of the fundamental principles that should underlie the cultivation of the immortal mind. The mischievous idea is lamentably prevalent that a person of meagre attainments and of but little experience is competent to teach the primary school. Only those of the broadest culture and the most experienced skill should be employed to give original bias and direction to the youthful mind. The teachers of our elementary schools should be deeply versed in the philosophy of mind, and prepared to make up an independent judgment upon the peculiarities of the mental constitution of each pupil. No Procrustean method should be adopted in the elementary schools. Respect for the individuality of pupils should characterize the teachers of elementary schools. Give the twig a wrong inclination, and every year will make more apparent the distortion. Disregard the plumb-line, and the higher the walls of the building climb the more will be seen the blunder of the foundation builder. So, let the teacher of the infant give an erroneous or vicious direction to its mind while in the plastic, formative state, and the farther forward the work of education is extended the more will be seen the injurious effect of wrong instruction in the primary school. The natural inference is that the primary teacher, properly fitted for the work, is entitled to a wage proportionate to the service rendered. Phidias cut his own image into the girdle of his marble

statue of Minerva. To get rid of the artist's likeness it would have been necessary to destroy the statue. So the image of the teacher goes into the very structure of the soul of the child, and will remain there. The primary teacher must open the eyes of youth to observe the riches of suggestion which God has flung with a lavish hand around our daily paths. The work of education begins the moment the eye of the child follows wonderingly the candle-light that crosses the angle of its vision. It makes a discovery of itself, and every step forward is a widening of the horizon of the mental vision. To teach the child to observe is principally the work of the elementary teacher, and consentaneously to furnish it with those principles that will enable it to classify and compare facts, and, finally, to deduce judgments. How false the old method of beginning school instruction by perplexing the child with the arbitrary letters of the alphabet! Nothing should be presented to the eye of the child unless an idea can be associated with the object. Words that have a full, easy meaning should be employed in the earliest stages of education.

The remarks were further extended and illustrated, but, as the address was purely extemporaneous, we can give only this brief abstract, which does injustice to the speaker, if regarded as the full text of his address.

ZALMON RICHARDS, of Washington, D. C., then read the following paper on.

THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

The English Language is *one* of the principal agencies of training, to be used in a properly organized elementary School. While the method of using the English Language in our elementary Schools, as an instrument of training, is very defective, I may say, that the greatest errors in our System of agencies for School training, are to be found in the lowest grades of elementary Schools. The higher grades of Schools, and the professional Schools are conducted upon more natural and philosophical principles, (if we except the Normal Schools) than those of the lower grades. The Normal Schools, generally, make their course of training correspond to the work to be done in the elementary schools; so that as the greatest errors are found in the work of Elementary training, we find a corresponding defect in schools designed for the training of Teachers; as teachers are trained especially for the work they must do. It will be seen that if the views hereafter expressed are correct, there are grave defects in the usual methods of Normal-School training; for there are very few graduates of Normal Schools, or even teachers, properly qualified to do the work necessary to be done to carry out these views. The other agencies of School training, such as Arithmetic, Geography, History, &c., require radical modifications, as well as the usual plans for language training. *Industrial training* also should be an universal accompaniment, in all our elementary Schools to the other training agencies. Education and labor for the *head*, the *heart*, and the *hands*, should be carried on together. The workshop with proper appliances, and the school-room should be in immediate

proximity, and be so conducted that they may become mutual helpers in elementary training.

I have deemed it necessary to say thus much by way of introduction.

Much has been said and written of late about language training. Books have been prepared, with some skill and labor, to meet a demand long felt. Yet I am not aware that the right kind of book has yet been prepared, which exactly meets the demand, and gives satisfaction to experienced teachers, or to the authors themselves. My object now is to try to show *what place* our language should have in the work of Elementary training, and *how* it should be used in this work. I think it can be shown that *the largest and by far the most important part of Elementary school training consists in mastering our own language.* Language is a storehouse of much of the knowledge to be acquired in our schools; and it is also the medium for communicating such knowledge as cannot be acquired by actual experience.

The human voice utters sounds, which either alone or in combination, represent certain ideas, facts, and things. The alphabet, in its various forms and combinations, represents these elementary sounds, which, when properly formed into words to represent specific ideas, are communicated to the mind by the ear. When these elementary sounds are represented by printed or written characters, the word-forms convey the same ideas to the mind, through the eye.

Only a small portion of the knowledge to be acquired by our children can be gained by actual experience. They must depend largely upon the recorded or written experience of others. Almost the first work of the child is to learn the meaning and use of names and words which are used by his parents and friends. His knowledge increases more rapidly as he gains a knowledge of words. Words give him a new start in the race of life. As he cannot bring the world of matter to the test of his own senses he must learn the words which represent the knowledge gained by others. These words have forms to be learned through the eye, as their sounds are learned through the ear. Here we see the beginning and the true nature of elementary training in schools. The child must learn to master the printed and the written words which reveal the mysteries of knowledge and represent the world which is beyond his own observation. Having once mastered these wonderful representatives of thought and knowledge he has received the most important preparation for working his own way through the world without the aid of teacher or school. If these views are correct, the truth of my first proposition is verified, viz: that "the largest, and by far the most important part of elementary school training consists in mastering our own language."

In view of the truth of this proposition, it must be evident to all, that every plan for elementary training, and every branch of school study should be subordinated and used to make the mastery of our language as complete as possible.

Here let me say that while I fully believe in the principles upon which the Kindergarten is based, I think the author of it, as well as his advocates, have made a very great mistake in ignoring language-training, or the reading of word-forms, while they take children through the *twenty*

gifts; for word-forms can be taught just as readily as geometrical forms; and the former will be used a *thousand* times to *one* of the latter.

But perhaps the most difficult question to be settled is, *How* is language to be used as an instrument of training?

If it has been used at all in our own experience, or in that of our fathers, *how* was it used? All that some of us can remember about its use is the senseless, dry memorizing of the definitions of old MURRAY, KIRKHAM, or BROWN; and the experimental parsing of "MILTON'S *Paradise Lost*." More recently some of us have memorized SMITH'S MURRAY, GREENE'S, WELLS'S, and KERL'S, or some one of the thousand and one of what some consider equally good Grammars, and by an almost mechanical process, we may have learned to analyze a few simple and compound sentences. But how many of us are conscious of having increased our own vocabulary of words thereby? or of having learned to use our limited vocabulary with more elegance and force? How many of us are thereby better prepared to use the proper names and terms required to describe the various parts of the house we live in? If we should attempt it we should at once discover our poverty of words. Attempts have been made of late to remedy the defects of old grammars; and some progress has been made; but the real difficulty has not been overcome.

Something more is needed than memorizing the abstract, and often imperfect definitions of grammar, analyzing and parsing sentences, and correcting false syntax, to constitute good language training. We need, and must have a training, that will increase our vocabulary of words, and our power and skill to use them. But the study of English Grammar, and becoming a good grammarian, as generally understood, do not secure these desirable acquisitions.

Some may say, "would you give up the study of English Grammar?" By no means; but I would use it in its proper place. The abstract rules and definitions of Grammar embody the important principles of language couched in *words*, whose meaning must be learned before these rules can be understood. The pupil should first be trained to use and understand language before he memorizes and studies the *rules* which govern language. We never expect to make a good carpenter or mason by requiring the apprentice first to study and understand the theories and rules of architecture and building; but he is put to work at once to learn the use of the necessary tools; and the common names or language of his art, as he progresses in the practice. Then, if he wishes to become a master workman, or a finished architect, he will study the *grammar* of his art or profession, which embodies its laws and rules. This is the finishing work of his profession. So should it be with language training. The grammar of our language should be the finishing work in studying it.

But some one may say, that by way of preparation for studying the rules of grammar, our children are taught to *read* before they study grammar. But here I take issue, and ask, are our children as a general thing, taught to read? How many of them can *really* read, though they may be able to call words readily? What is reading? Let me venture to give a definition. *Reading is the gaining of a correct understanding of written or printed language, clearly and readily, as we glance our eyes over the word-*

forms. It is vastly more than uttering or pronouncing the words correctly; for a child can be taught to pronounce even a Latin sentence correctly, without understanding a single word of it. This all will admit; and yet we talk about children reading well, when they are neither able to give or to understand the meaning of what they read. The facts are, that they are not taught to read; but to be mere *word-repeaters*. As a general thing, this is about all that is done, in teaching children to read. But this is not language-training. I admit that no person can, with certainty, pronounce a passage correctly, unless he clearly understands it. The chief merit in good reading consists in having a good understanding of what is read. Let us consult the Good Book—"So they read in the Book of the law of God *distinctly*; and *gave the sense*, and caused them to *understand the reading*."

This is the way the good old prophet Ezra (8. 8-) and the schoolmasters who were trained in his Normal School, 2700 years ago, taught the people in his day. Where are the teachers of elocutionists in our day who have improved upon the prophet's method of teaching reading and speaking? This may suffice for reading as a training agency. Let me now take a little more *practical* view of this question of language-training.

The *first thing* to be done in elementary training is to impress the mind with some idea or thought. This should be done by *first* presenting to the eye and ear *the thing itself*, if possible, which will give the idea; or the *picture* of the thing; or, if the idea is abstract, some *suitable illustration*.

Take, for example, the word *watch*, as a word to be understood and read by the child. First, show a watch; and in the best possible way, make him understand the peculiarities and uses of the watch. Or take the picture of a lion, or an elephant, or a steam-engine, and make the child understand the peculiarities and uses of each of these objects, with the picture before him. Take again some color, and make the child learn to distinguish it from any other by comparison; take qualities as good contrasted with bad; or quantity, as much with little; or motion, as swift or slow; or distance, as long or short; high or low; near or far, &c., &c. These examples are sufficient for illustration.

The next step is the language lesson—or the *name* and word-form which represents each idea. The name *watch* is properly presented in print or script, upon a chart or blackboard. The child having learned what the word means from having seen the watch and heard it described, should be required to examine the exact form of its name, pronouncing it carefully at the same time, after listening to the teacher. He should be made as familiar with the *form* of the *name* of the watch, as with the form of the watch itself; until the sight of the one will readily suggest the other. So do, with each of the other word-forms, by using the picture or some proper illustration, until the sight of the name will readily suggest the thing and the thing will suggest its name. Of course the child will be required to form on slate or paper each of the names as fast as he learns them. The printed name should be presented as soon as possible after gaining the idea it represents.

The form of each name should be so impressed, that the child can

readily distinguish any one name from any other; or any *incorrect form* of any name; but the teacher should be sure that the *correct form* is always given *at first*; and its peculiarities so pointed out, that the exact form can always be remembered. If this direction is rigidly carried out the necessity for spelling drills, or exercises, will be entirely obviated.

I look upon the whole business of spelling, as generally conducted, to be an enormous waste of time, labor, and patience,—an unsatisfactory method of gaining a very important accomplishment; because the same thing can be accomplished more expeditiously and thoroughly in the way I have indicated above. The time for learning to spell words correctly, is when they are first used and presented to the eye in print. If words were never to be written or printed, there would be no necessity for learning to spell them. But as there must be an uniform method of spelling, every one must learn to spell according to the form fixed upon by reputable scholars.

Oral spelling has few advantages, except as a drill to secure correct enunciation, articulation, and pronunciation; and it should never be allowed as a *guessing* operation, in learning to spell. Oral spelling will not make, practically, better spellers. The form of the word, unfortunately, (I say unfortunately because our words are not phonetic) and not the sound, is our guide to correct spelling. Give us a *purely phonetic alphabet*, and then the *sound* as well as the *form*, would be a correct guide to spelling.

But if names and words are to be learned chiefly through the medium of sight, only as the ideas are gained which the words represent, then nature, or the world around us, becomes our best primary school reading book; open for use in every grade of schools.

Printed books are the subordinate servants and ministers, whose office is to bring to us a knowledge of facts and things contained in the pages of the great *text-book* of nature, which we may not be able to peruse ourselves.

The immaterial world of mind and spirit, of thought and morals, also furnishes many pages in God's great book, which cannot be read except as language inspired or uninspired, presents their contents to our senses. Our own thoughts and feelings have their representative words; then there are the thoughts and feelings of millions of other intelligent beings, which are to be borne to us by the swift winged messengers of language. Every thought, feeling, virtue, and vice, and every quality of mind or matter has its representative name.

What wonderful resources are at the teacher's command, if he is properly qualified, for imparting a knowledge of facts and ideas, through the mysterious agency of language!

From the beginning to the end of life's training then, language becomes the chief instrument to be used. The better, therefore, the child understands the meaning and use of words, the better is he prepared to read and study the great book of nature, which is always open; and the better can he avail himself of the knowledge and experience of others, which, to a large part of mankind, is a hidden treasure, locked up in printed books. Give him such a training, with habits of industry, econo-

my, and virtue, and he will be able to work his way through the world with success, and be at the same time useful to his fellow-creatures.

Remarks in continuation of Mr. RICHARDS's paper upon the use of the English Language, in reply to the following questions:

"Will not your method of teaching *words* so much, operate against the correct use of words in sentences; and will it not interfere with the use of the excellent Reading Books?"

MR. PRESIDENT:—

Words cannot be used in sentences, neither can books be read understandingly, before the pupil has learned the meaning of words. Reading is an accomplishment of great merit; but it cannot be acquired without much training. The apprentice must learn the nature and use of his tools, before he uses them upon a fine piece of workmanship. So, when the child has learned the meaning and use of words, let him devote himself to writing and reading for instruction.

But the Elementary School is not the place for reading many books. There are twice or three times as many reading books in our Elementary Schools, as there ought to be. A series of *three Reading Books*, properly adapted to the work of language training, would be far more useful than any of the series of six books now used, and they would not cost half so much.

The first book should be designed to teach the meaning and use of the small number of words, not over 500, which constitutes the entire vocabulary of even most teachers.

The next book should be designed to make the pupil familiar with the *new terms* and the *first principles* of the branches to be taught in school, so as to dispense with all primary arithmetics, primary geographies, grammars, and histories; and with spellers altogether.

The third and last necessary book of the series, should be designed to furnish the best specimens of English Language, in Prose and Poetry; to illustrate the various styles and methods of English composition.

During the reading and use of this book, and the necessary exercises in *enunciation*, *articulation*, and *pronunciation*, for making the pupil a good reader and speaker, he may be required to study the *complete works* on Arithmetic, Grammar, Geography, History, &c. If further exercises are necessary for reading, any good books can be used, or even newspapers and periodicals.

The President then read the following paper by the Rev. R. H. RIVERS, D. D., of Martin College, Pulaski, Tenn., on

MORAL TRAINING.

It is a grave mistake to postpone moral training to a period bordering on maturity. It is impossible to determine at how early a period the moral Faculty may receive impressions. Certainly moral influence begins in the

cradle and continues during life. It is inspired by a mother's looks, and is felt in the intonations of her voice. It accompanies the songs of the nursery which hush the infant to sleep, and is impressed by the tender caresses of a mother's love. Such and so early are the beginnings of moral character; such and so early are the impressions which are destined to be indelible. It is not however with a mother's influence that we have to deal. We are to discuss the subject of moral training in schools. And in view of what has been said, we must admire the wisdom of the Committee that placed this paper among those intended to influence early education. At this early period, precepts and laws, rules and regulations, are not to be relied upon for the training of the morals. It is to the character of the teacher more than to anything else that I look for the exercise of the purest, best, and most permanent influence upon the heart and character of the young. The power of a character good and pure has never yet been estimated. It wins to virtue and leads to goodness by an influence as silent as the mighty forces which control the movements of the planets, and guide them with infallible accuracy along the paths marked out by the thought of God. It speaks with no uncertain sound, and shines with no false light. Its voice is as certain as the oracles of God, and its light as true as that which shines from the candle of the Lord. Let the light of a pure and blameless life shine upon the pathway of children and it will lead to the noblest manhood, and to an old age redolent with the aroma of moral excellence.

The character of the teacher must be marked by gentleness. Gentleness attracts, violence repels, gentleness leads, violence drives. Gentleness is as charming and as soft as the kiss of the zephyr, violence is as terrible as the storm. The former smiles, the latter frowns, and while gentleness saves by tenderness, violence ruins by harshness. The texture of dawning character is exceedingly delicate and must not be broken by harshness nor marred by cruelty. If the twig in the nursery is roughly handled, the tree will be sure to indicate its early training. Gentleness in the school-room must take the place of the ferule and words touching and tender must ever be characteristic of him in whose hands are placed the destinies of children. It was gentleness in the Great Teacher that won the heart of the rough and impetuous PETER, as well as the more soft and refined nature of the beloved disciple. So all natures are more or less impressible by this trait so essential to the teacher. To this must be united firmness. Firmness is as essential as gentleness, and with their blended influence a very high character of moral training may be accomplished. Training to be effectual must be consistent. Fickleness is as incompatible with correct moral training as it is with success in any avocation of life. If the teacher is governed by whims and fancies, which change with every new phase of character, if he is at one time exacting and at another lenient, if at one time he holds with a firm and steady hand the reins of government, and at another gives up the reins entirely, if at one time he frets and scolds, and at another pities and coaxes, he will lose all influence for good, and will utterly fail to train either for virtue or usefulness. Gentleness and firmness should act like the centrifugal and centripetal forces which for

thousands of years have kept the planets in their orbits, and regulated the solar system with an accuracy which defies criticism. So these two virtues acting in harmony should result in the most perfect order in the school-room and should result in such culture as would be felt for generations to come. Patience is equally needful in high moral culture. A distinguished teacher always sought as his assistants, in a large school for young ladies, those who had passed through great suffering and had thus been disciplined to patience. Widows, he said, always made his best teachers because they were uniformly the most patient. I coincide in this view in so far as it expresses the importance of patience. It is a well-known fact that wild hearts are often subdued by the exercise of patience, which no turbulence upon their part can either overcome or resist. Much more can the most violent spirit of childhood be overcome by the exercise of this exalted virtue. Like charity it suffereth long and is kind. It endures until resistance can hold out no more. It forbears until violence shrinks appalled from its presence. It bears with infirmities and foibles until they disappear from the school. It perseveres in the one straight course in the correction of evil and in the cure of crime itself until success crowns its efforts. It shrinks from no opposition and retires before no amount of violence or turbulence. Filled with a divine faith the patient teacher moves along the humble path of duty like a shepherd leading his flock amid green pastures and beside still waters. He does not quail in the presence of the greatest obstacles and falters not because of difficulties both unexpected and apparently inextricable. He knows that at the last, he must win a prize such as no conqueror in any other field ever won; he must gain a victory whose influence shall be felt all along the great and eternal future. When patience is lost all self-control departs and with it all good government. An impatient man actually invites disorder and produces insubordination. Unable to govern himself he loses control over others, and anarchy with all its direful consequences is the result of his lack of this passive virtue. In addition to this, he that would rightfully train the young must cultivate in himself a most confiding spirit. He must not be suspicious. Confidence begets confidence, excites love, arouses aspirations, and almost assures good government. A child would submit to anything rather than the loss of the confidence of the teacher. So soon as it is perceived that the teacher is full of suspicion towards his pupils, so soon does hate take the place of love, and disorder begins to run its fearful course. Feeling that the teacher has no confidence in them the pupils take pleasure in thwarting his wishes, evading his authority, and in covertly violating his commands. They try their skill in tricks which give annoyance and seek by all means to keep up a constant suspicion that nothing can go right when his back is turned. I know that there is much in the conduct of the pupils to create the lack of confidence which I hold to be so necessary to a proper training of the young. Let therefore the teacher cultivate as far as possible a generous confidence in his pupils; and I can assure him that the cultivation of this principle in his own heart will tend largely to make the scholar worthy of such trust. In my own history as a teacher, I had a most convincing evidence that it can almost save the apparently incorrigible. I once had charge of a young man whose character for licen-

tiousness and deception was such that the Faculty believed suspension was the only resort. I begged that I be allowed to undertake his reformation. To this I obtained a reluctant consent from the Faculty of the College, accompanied with the assurance that my labor would be lost. Under these discouragements I approached the young man alone. I addressed him as a friend. He met me gruffly and in a most unpleasant humor. He said he had always been treated as a dog; that his teachers had no confidence in him, and that even his own Father had ceased to look upon him either with affection or confidence. I endeavored to turn his mind away from such bitter reflections and sought to encourage him to pursue a different course of life. I said to him I am your friend, and am ready to trust you. I desire to place confidence in your honor, and to deal with you as one not destitute of all noble feelings. He replied, you are the first man that ever appealed to my honor and the appeal shall not be in vain. I promise you, now and here, upon my honor that I will reform and that from this time there shall be no cause of complaint against me. I took him at his word, reported to my co-laborers what had taken place, and assured them of my hope as to his keeping his most solemn promise of reformation. That boy was changed. He took courage and hope. For the first time in his life he felt there was manhood in him. He became strong. He attended punctually to his duties and graduated with credit. With younger persons I am sure the exercise of this confidence will be still more efficient. It will quicken every energy toward the right, and will repress every principle and passion that might lead to vice. It will impart a motive to action ever-present and ever exciting the young mind to make itself worthy of the highest confidence which man can bestow. Then the character in order to possess all the influence for moral training which I claim it should have must be true. Truth must be the very basis of a high moral character. It must be the pillar of cloud and the pillar of fire. It must be the star that never sets and whose light always guides aright. Sincerity in words, fidelity in action, and truth in principle must pervade the life of the teacher. He must not be false. He cannot be a fraud and a cheat. Deception must not nestle in his bosom and guile must not stain his lips. The evils of falsehood have no mitigation and are becoming more and more ruinous. We have corrupt *rings* linked together by mutual deception. They are corrupting society in high places and in low. They seek to make fraud respectable and knavery honorable. The times demand honest and true men whose integrity shall be incorruptible, and whose truth shall be above suspicion. In order to this, truth must be taught in the nursery, inculcated in the infant school. It must be impressed by character upon the minds of the young. It must win its way to the heart and conscience before falsehood has been allowed to pollute the one and pervert the other. It must be honored by the aged and loved by the young, until all our men and women with one heart shall be ready to die by the truth. This great country of ours must be honored and glorified by the truthfulness of her sons and daughters. Deception must not undermine this great Republic, nor sap the very foundation of the temple of liberty. No future GIBBON must write its decline and fall, and attribute its ruin to the lack of truth, the want of integrity, and the

destitution of moral principle by which its youth have been corrupted. To prevent this let every teacher be the embodiment of truth. Let it constitute the great ruling principle of his life. Let it inspire his words and rule his actions. With such a character the teacher is prepared to undertake and to accomplish the highest moral culture. As he moves along among his pupils, streams of living influence flow out from him, as streams from a never-failing fountain. Every step he takes touches some spring of human action and gives it a right direction. Every word of wisdom that falls from his lips, appeals to some higher principle of human nature and leaves its impress for good. He is no automaton. He breathes the vital air of heaven and his very soul thrills with the higher life to which he would lead each member of his flock. With him character is everything—position nothing. And as the Master is finally to draw all men to him by the power of his own matchless character, so the teacher is to attract the hearts of the young to virtue, and purity, and goodness, and truth, by the power of his blameless life. I would have the teacher give but few rules. I have seen a pamphlet filled with by-laws give a College Faculty more trouble in their execution, than the framers ever conceived. A multiplicity of laws will invite evasion and produce insubordination. They become temptations to wrong and incentives to sin. But one general rule is all that is necessary. Do right. Let the teacher place himself at once in sympathy with his pupils. He has the same love for truth. He will do right himself and they must imitate his example. A few details will of course be added to this one ruling principle, and then there will be, there *can* be no evasion. With the teacher there should be no intermeddling either from parents or trustees. It is very sad to the hope of the school when such interference weakens the authority or lessens the influence of the conscientious teacher. Trustees must employ only such men as have their entire confidence and then give up all into their hands. For a teacher to have to submit to a code of laws prepared by others without experience in teaching and with notions of government wild and fanciful, is at once humiliating to him and destructive to the best moral influence. No, the teacher must be supreme among his subjects. He must be both the Legislative and Executive power. His will enlightened by reason and sanctified by grace must be the great controlling power while his judgment and conscience must make such demands upon his pupils as their good may require.

When discipline is required and punishment must be inflicted it must be done with a steady and firm but gentle hand. In rare instances it may be attended to before the school. In most instances even a reproof should be administered privately. The culprit should be called to a private room and there with all the influence of truth, gentleness, patience, and firmness, let the fault be corrected and the offender saved. Alone with a teacher whose character is respected, whose confidence he desires to enjoy, and whose feelings he would not wound on any account, an offending scholar can not remain perverse for any length of time. He must yield to an influence which at such a time is almost omnipotent. He must sink overwhelmed with shame, overcome by a sense of guilt, filled with remorse, *and sincerely* penitent for the wrong committed. Then is the time to

kindle an aspiration and arouse a purpose at once noble, sincere, and firm.

Then is the time too to forgive and to forget. A constant recurrence to an offence which has been corrected and forgiven will blunt the feelings, quench the rising desire, and repress the nascent aspiration. It will do away with all the good effects of the private interview and will tend to demoralize the school. In moral training the child must be taught at a very early period to seek perfection of character. He must be taught to shun temptation, to avoid evil company, and to fight bravely against all the influences and associations which could lead him to sin. He must be made to feel that a high character is of priceless worth, and that it must be secured at whatever cost. With this training comes all other high culture. The moral powers cultivated and purified and it follows as a matter of course that no other right or refining culture will be neglected. It is then important to the state and to the church, to the individual and to society. It will elevate our standard of morality, give us a sense of our dignity at home, and will increase our glory abroad. It will ennoble our manhood, refine and purify our womanhood, increase the happiness of home, give greater purity to our social intercourse, and add countless years to the life of the nation. It will promote justice, widen benevolence, lessen the probabilities of war and mitigate its horrors. Crime will be diminished and virtue will add to her own votaries by the thousands. Ignorance will be enlightened, the vicious reformed, and the lost saved. Its importance cannot be over-estimated and the means of its accomplishment cannot be too diligently sought after. It embraces the thoughts of the intellect, the feelings of the heart, and the determinations of the will. It includes soul and body. It demands the entire subjugation of both to truth, justice, and God. It cannot be satisfied until every appetite is subdued and every principle made pure. Beginning with infancy, moral culture goes on forever. Begun by the mother and continued by the faithful teacher it will not be complete until, for countless ages it has been carried on by the operation of the Spirit of Holiness and Love. To this great object the moral training of our race—the entire remedial system lends its holiest influence, and upon it God has bestowed the profoundest wisdom and the tenderest love. The dispensations of Divine Providence are working to this end, and the church has no other mission than its accomplishment. The teacher then—the humblest in our infant schools—is a co-worker with God. His mission is sublime, his duties high, and if faithfully performed will lead him to a glorious destiny. If by the attainment of a character such as I have endeavored to describe, he shall wield an influence which shall close the heart to vice and open it to virtue, which shall lessen human misery and vastly increase the amount of human happiness, which shall raise education to a higher moral standard and lift up man to a higher plane of thought, feeling, and action, he will have accomplished a destiny the sublimest attainable by man.

In conclusion I declare in this presence and under a sense of responsibility rendered oppressive by the importance of the subject and the occasion that in all this great work, the teacher must humbly seek the assistance of Him, who is the fountain of all wisdom, purity, and truth. He must depend for guidance upon the teachings of the blessed Bible, at once the light of our civilization and the only infallible guide of our race.

The President appointed W. A. BELL, of Indiana, J. L. PICKARD, of Illinois, Mrs. KRAUS-BOELTE, of New York, Miss SARAH E. RICHMOND, of Maryland, and Mrs. M. A. STONE, of Connecticut, a committee on the Nomination of Officers.

Adjourned.

Second Day's Proceedings.

WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 15, 1877.

The Department met at 3 P. M. Mr. and Mrs. KRAUS not having reached the Hall, Mrs. C. J. HILDRETH, Supervisor of the Kindergarten Schools of St. Louis, was called upon for some remarks. She complied by presenting some arguments in favor of Kindergarten instruction.

Prof. JOHN KRAUS then read the following paper on

THE KINDERGARTEN (ITS USE AND ABUSE) IN AMERICA.

The popular mind has a strange and erroneous idea that the Kindergarten is a school. That it is still but little understood in this country even with some who advocate it and try to explain and write on "What a Kindergarten is," shows the very spoliation of the word, viz:—Kindergarten-ing, Kindergartenism, gardening of Kindergarten, &c. Now it may be that in English almost any simple noun may be used as a verb without any change whatever in its form, and in like manner almost any verb may be used as a noun; nouns used as adjectives and adjectives as nouns; but gardening of Kindergarten is under any and under all circumstances sheer nonsense. It is hardly necessary to state here that the literal meaning of Kindergarten is children's garden. However: "Garten" in German does not mean the same thing as garden in English. The name Garten in the German language means a place of recreation. It need not be a flower garden. nor need it have trees, shrubs, or grass. If only it is a place of resort where there is amusement, enjoyment, or recreation of a harmless nature, such a place is a garten. Garten in general signifies, according to JACOB GRIMM, circumference, circle, ring. According to others an encompassed, circumscribed space. The comprehension *circle*, harmonious circle, expresses the name garten. FROEBEL called his institution Kindergarten because he thought it necessary that a garden should be connected with it, and because he wished symbolically to indicate by this name that children resemble the plants of a garden, and should be treated with similar care. There lies however, at the bottom of FROEBEL's education a general human idea, as indicated in his first book "Education of Mankind." He named therefore his first Kindergarten, General German Kindergarten, and his intention was to transplant it not only to the other states of Eu-

rope, but also to America. In regard to the latter, I have several letters written by FROEBEL, in 1851 and 1852, in which he repeatedly made propositions and suggestions, how the Kindergarten could and should be introduced into America. The term Kindergarten, of course, is German, and has passed with the thing it signifies into all parts of the Continent, also to England and America. Here and there it may be called *Gardini d' Infanzia* in Italy; "*Jardin d' Enfants*" in France and Belgium; "*Infant Gardén*" in England and America; but in fact, the thing itself is known everywhere under the name "*Kindergarten*." But nobody speaks about Russian, Prussian, Austrian, Italian, French, and English Kindergarten, applied to Russian, Prussian, Austrian, Italian, French and English wants. Thus it may be seen that persons who label their schools "*American Kindergartens*," adapted to American wants do it under false pretence in order to make money out of the popularity of the name. One could just as well speak about American Christianity, American Beatitudes, American "*Sermon on the Mount*," American "*Golden Rule*," etc., adapted to American wants, as to speak about an American Kindergarten, adapted to American wants.

It is thought by many in this country that FROEBEL gives to all children the same materials, prepared beforehand so that they may make use of them; and that he obliges them to draw from these materials determined and foreseen results.—However it should be borne in mind that his method aims to give nothing but the material for play; that a real fusion of learning, work, and play is only possible, when the objects, which serve the child in its play, are not ready made, but invite independent mental and bodily action upon them. Ready-made playthings hinder childish activity, and train to laziness and thoughtlessness; and hence are much more injurious than can be expressed. The impulse to activity turns to the destruction of the ready-made things and becomes at last a real spirit of destructiveness. Also mere mechanical work of children, that which is done without exciting the imaginative faculties, is likewise injurious, because thereby the intellect becomes inactive. There is in this country too much of a disposition to make patterns and elaborate material for the Kindergarten; but this is a deviation which annuls FROEBEL's principles. His method is the very opposite. The child receives only simple material, which he can transform, or compose into new forms within the limits of their nature. It cannot too often be repeated, that all those persons who use patterns in the Kindergarten have no claim whatever to be considered as true Kindergartners.

Of course it wants more than mere sight-seeing to do justice to the Kindergarten on the part of those, who write on the subject. Under the head, "*A German Kindergarten*," Dr. JOHN HURST, after giving a description of how the principal Kindergarten in Bremen is conducted, says: "The children have patterns before them for everything they are to do, and the teacher personally superintends them in each little labor, when every pain is taken to impart as much elementary instruction as possible." In passing I will but mention, that at the time when Dr. HURST visited the Kindergarten in Bremen, it was conducted by Miss GRABAU, a competent and genuine Kindergartner, and a closer observation would have con-

vinced him that he has been mistaken. A still greater mistake has been made by Dr. E. SEGUIN, of New York, when he asserts: "The Kindergarten's aim is only to give object lessons."* Dr. SEGUIN is a French physician of international reputation for his investigations and experiments in the training of idiots. But from the way in which he describes the Kindergarten it is plain, that he never has seen a genuine Kindergarten. In his opinion "The Kindergarten's aim is only to give object lessons." Now, what does he mean by object lessons? There is a kind of teaching that never fails to produce in the learner an eagerness to know and to do, that is created by interest in the object of teaching alone. But there is no English term to designate this kind of teaching. Object-teaching is not broad enough, and subject-teaching not sufficiently explicit. The German Anschauungs Unterricht (intuition-instruction) covers the whole ground, but it has no English equivalent. "*Seeing-teaching*," its literary translation, may be made with an explanation to express its meaning. *Seeing-teaching* uses words only to place the thing taught, before the mind. The definition, or rule is *seen* in the process; the conditions of the problem are *seen*, and the reasoning, the solution is *seen*. The ideas recalled by words are *seen*. *Seeing* in this sense, is not only the sight of the objects, outside of the mind, but the inward mental sight of the subject-object. *Seeing-teaching* involves the clear presentation of every thing taught by the objects themselves, or by means of words and illustrations in the objective method and the method of investigation combined. Thus it will be seen that the German term (Anschauungs Unterricht) means a very different thing from Object-Lessons. One of the best authorities on the subject in this country, Mr. E. E. White, stated years ago, that three-fourths of the Object Lessons are mere cramming lessons, and become a means for giving the children facts and information about a variety of things, many of which are superficial, illogical, and heterogeneous. The "American Educational Monthly," in an article on Object Teaching, after speaking on "Model Lessons," fearfully and wonderfully made in violation of every rule of true teaching, not to say every principle of common sense, says "the most vicious teaching that is done at this day, is misnamed 'Object-Teaching.'" I know very well, that the better part of teachers in this country do not consider and treat so-called object lessons in that way, but properly speaking as lessons on our ideas of objects, (things and their qualities and relations.) But also in this sense, they are out of place in the Kindergarten. After all, the educational possibilities, which Dr. SEGUIN indicates, are entirely in the future. He would relieve the plethora of the school rooms in large cities by sending the children in sections to the gymnasium and the music-room, and to the various parks, gardens, aquariums, and museums of the locality. But we must not forget that it is salutary to remember that the system which revolutionized modern education, began by insisting that mothers should nurse their own infants and give free career to their limbs. In his time ROUSSEAU could hardly have attempted or achieved more than this. Later philosophers have gone further back than

* Compare: Vienna International Exhibition, 1873. Report on Education. By E. SEGUIN, E. D. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1875.

the cradle, similar as Dr. SEGUIN has suggested, that the Model Nursery at the Vienna Exhibition "ought to have been accompanied by a little manual of what is necessary to protect and prepare life before nativity."

"From this, the true cradle of mankind," Dr. SEGUIN looks at that made for the baby." He studies baby and infant life in the public nurseries or crèches of Paris, and the Salles d' Asyle of France, and the Kindergarten of Germany. After stating where, in his opinion, the Kindergarten, as at present managed, is open to criticism, he expresses the hope that, "the kind training of the Salle d' Asyle and the joyous exercises of the Kindergarten will yet unite to form, in this country, the true National Physiological Infant School."

The next chapter of the report is a scientific *résumé* of the physiological principles and methods, which should govern this ideal infant school." Now everything, Dr. SEGUIN says of the physiological school, is the genuine Kindergarten, but he puts it in an antagonistic position to the Kindergarten. It may here also be mentioned, that "the method of FROEBEL continues the application of the Kindergarten principle of a genially guided free activity into the work school and book school, that it does no less apply to the hours of recreation, for which there is the greater need, the more strictly children are kept to work and study. Hence the schoolgarten which FROEBEL invented secures bodily and mental health at once. As the sum of what has to be learned goes on increasing, the hours of recreation for all children and youth have been curtailed; but by appreciating and applying FROEBEL's method to the hours of recreation it is possible to increase them without taking from study anything but that limitation which had begun to be recognized as at any rate necessary, for it begins to be granted, that the time for recreation is almost no less important for culture than study and work; for recreation furthers the process of moral development, and averts its dangers; the Baroness MARENHOLTZ has devoted two chapters to the subject in her "New Education by Work." In her Reminiscences of FROEBEL she quotes HIECKE as saying in 1850, "Schoolgartens will be of great use, if only FROEBEL can find the grounds necessary for them in the great cities." At that time the idea seemed almost Utopian. But within the last five years, a great number of schoolgartens have been founded. At the Vienna Exhibition was a complete schoolgarten in operation, and showed how easily, and at what reasonable cost, it could be carried out. Dr. ERASMUS SCHWAB has since conducted the schoolgartens so that the Vienna municipality has increased them by doubling the public grounds for them,—so salutary have they proved to the health and morals and practical ability of the school children. As to the plan of a schoolgarten Dr. SCHWAB says in a letter, "Its plan depends not merely upon the peculiar kind of educational institution with which it may be connected,—city and country school, people's school, training school for teachers, gymnasium, technical school, orphan asylum, deaf-mute school, idiot school, etc.,—but upon the kind of pupils who frequent it, upon the space assigned to it (as dimensions, situation, form, quality, and ground), upon the climatic relations of the country and place, upon the pecuniary means of the community, upon the culture and social condition of the inhabitants,—indeed, upon all the conditions which

life indispensably deals with. It is also clear that the schoolgarten cannot be carried on according to any doctrinarian views, or any theorems, or in any wooden way, but that it must assimilate itself more to immutable circumstances, that in each particular case the ideal to be reached must be sought with circumspection and refined feeling.

A schoolgarten, according to the place it occupies, will afford for the school children and others means of observation and a fulness of delight which, alas! were not granted to the youth of the present grown-up generation.....Children truly live in the schoolgarten. They soon forget what they study in books, but never forget what they have *lived*. If not in too small a compass, they are specially valuable as a means of improvement to the teachers while giving to children great general, social, and small special fields of labor; ministering on one side to the social sentiment, and on the other to the natural love of personal activity, and thereby cultivating the best roots of human civilization. The schoolgarten makes the task of the school lighter: it is of priceless value, indeed, both to teachers and pupils. It enables the teacher to teach with unity of purpose, freshness of life, and practical ability, and to occupy himself with specialities. Indeed, it alone makes possible for the public schools a rational method of intelligent instruction in natural history, now considered indispensable to the human race.....

The schoolgarten is a planting ground for the observation of nature, for pleasures noble in themselves, for the culture of the understanding and of the sense of beauty, for the promotion and growth of the social sentiment, for better morals, for a vigorous development of the body,—in short for the highest welfare of the community. It is an ideal thought, made applicable to the completion of life as a whole, and related to real life in order to advance the general welfare, materially, intellectually, and morally.”.....“All sound thoughts upon the subject will soon be a common possession of European humanity; and a well-considered thorough reform of the whole subject of education is now in preparation in all Europe”..... I have said before that at the bottom of FROEBEL's education lies a general human idea as indicated in his first book on Education of Mankind, in order to expose quacks and imposters who pretend to have improved on his method. I further wanted to rectify the mistakes to suppose that the study of FROEBEL's idea and method should be confined to Kindergartens. I wanted moreover to call attention and warn before the ingrafting of the public schools helter-skelter upon the Kindergarten and I have been more explicit as time would permit in order to show that

*School and Kindergarten have different objects, and
correspondingly different methods.*

Some years ago a gentleman of Ohio published an article under the head “*The German Kindergarten*,” since frequently reprinted. He made his “first visit to a Kindergarten situated in the midst of the city of Berlin, where a room had been fitted up in the plainest style, and the walls were adorned with pictures—cards for object lessons or rather language lessons. Here the little fellows between the ages of two and six years, are led every morning. At noon they are sent home to return at 2 P. M., spending about six hours per day in the school.” In Dresden he visited the

Kinder Bervahr Anstalt. The institution was founded by benevolent ladies of the city. The object of this institution is chiefly to receive the children of parents who are obliged to work away from home. There were 110 children enrolled. They are brought and taken away at any time from 7 A. M. till 7 P. M." Now if the writer could call such institutions Kindergartens, it is no wonder that he says in conclusion: "The question is agitated, 'Do we want Kindergartens in this country?' I think not, except it be for the poorest classes of the crowded cities. No one can take the place of a mother, or can understand the wants of a child and contribute to its happiness like a mother. Who can understand the length, breadth, and fulness of that word 'Mother?' or of that sacred word in our language 'Home'? Take a child from its home and away from its mother, and you give it a stone instead of bread. The instruction given a child, before it has reached the age of six or seven years, is of little value, because so quickly forgotten. The first seven years should be the growing age, not the thinking age. Moreover, there are enough sorrows in infancy. Who would wish to increase them, or lessen the joys, by confinement and strict observance of rules? Or who would check the happy, joyous outburst of childish freedom by the dull routine of school or kindergarten life?"

Now after all, and all in all, this shows that the writer has no idea about a true Kindergarten. "What a Kindergarten has to show," says KARL FROEBEL, "are happy, healthy, good-natured children; no proficiency in learning of any kind, no precocity; but just children in their normal state." The Kindergarten rejects Reading, Writing, Reckoning, Spelling. But it teaches the little children to do things much more clever than those useful accomplishments. In it children under six, build, plait, fold, model, sing, act, in short, they learn in play to work, to construct, to invent, to relate, and speak correctly, and—what is the best of all—to love each other, to be kind to each other, to help each other. One more thing I must mention which children do learn in the Kindergarten, and which comprises all their other infantine accomplishments:—"they learn to play together,"—an accomplishment of the greatest moral importance to children of all ages. *Play* is the normal occupation of children. Play is work without a practical object, work with the instinctive purpose of bringing into action the innate powers of the mind. It is so natural, that we find it in young animals. In children, however, it takes at once an intellectual turn under the guidance of the parents, and is the best preparation for, or rather the beginning of, mental culture. So all the positive result that can be expected from the Kindergarten is play.

But the Kindergarten has not only to supply the proper materials and opportunities for the innate mental powers which, like leaves and blossoms in the bud, press forward and impel the children to activity with so much the more energy, the better they are supplied. It has also to preserve children from the harm of civilization which furnishes poison as well as food, temptations as well as salvation; and children must be kept from this trial, till their mental powers have grown equal to its dangers. Much of the invisible success of the Kindergarten, therefore, is negative, and consists in preventing harm. Its positive success, again, is so simple, that it cannot be expected to attract more notice than, for instance, fresh

air, pure water, or the merit of a physician who keeps a family in good health.....What renders children so happy in the Kindergarten? That they learn to play, the only thing they care for after having satisfied their animal wants. What will render pupils as happy in the primary school? That they *learn to learn*, the next thing that children care for, after they have *learned to play*. This latter should be the result of the Kindergarten time, it should be found existing therefore in children at their seventh year. If childish play has been neglected, an undue wish for play will be brought into the class-room, and confusion and perversion begin, but not education. Of course, school children must besides learning, play and work also, but not the whole day. They must learn now, and they desire to learn. So there must be a proper time for learning and for playing.

Now compare this picture with the "checking of happy, joyous outbursts of childish freedom by the dull routine of school or Kindergarten," and you will find, that the popular mind has a strange and erroneous idea that the Kindergarten is a school. It is therefore time that the public be informed of the nature of the Kindergarten, and the kind of education, which is given to children who attend them. The idea of school implies tasks—lessons and compulsory teaching. "School is a Greek word, when primitive meant emptiness, and the original conception of a frequenter of a school was an empty vessel to be filled up by the teacher, involving the prevailing idea of the school method. Upon entering the school the child changes worlds, and for the universe of God, substitutes the little artificial universe of the pedagogue, hung round with maps and filled with the wonderful works of the printer. In crossing the threshold of the school-room, the child leaves behind the world of reality and fact, and enters a world of artificial representations. The change involves a total revolution of educational methods. From that complete action of the mental faculties which is called out by experience of phenomena, and which results in the formation and growth of ideas, the intellectual effort is narrowed down to the memorizing of words, the principal occupation of the school-room. As soon as the child has memorized its letters sufficiently to read a few little words, books are placed in its hands—primary spellers, primary grammars, primary arithmetics, primary geographies, primary "ologies," and "osophies," etc., from which it solves examples, parses sentences. The great tools of the average teacher are the text-books; the parrot process for mental arithmetic, the questions at the bottom of the page, the geographical and other catechisms. Nearly everything is made to conform to the exigencies of the books. Studying and recitations, questions and answers, merit marks for accurate memorizing, and demerit marks for inaccuracies all from the books—these make up the greater part of what is called teaching.

Nature has an article still more forcibly to the point. We are apt to forget into what a wretchedly cramped and artificial condition so many generations of schoolmasters have bred us. Each of us, generation after generation, has very early been made to put Chinese shoes on most of the feet of his mind. We all see the sportive, elastic, quick, sharp, unwearying work of the senses of a little child. We do not, all of us, bear in mind to how fearful an extent these senses are bruised and deadened

by the pedantry of our pedagogues. Men who cultivate those sciences in which success is inseparable from agile sense, know at what cost and labor in later years and sometimes even in their full prime, they have had to go back and undo all that their schoolmasters have done, have had to become little children again for the sake of sharper eye and quicker ear. This is what we do, we grown up and pretendedly grown wise people, we catch the acting, looking, learning, working, and manufacturing, happy little creatures, and clap him together with twenties, thirties, forties, fifties, besides into a wooden box, hardly in some instances large enough to hold them without jamming and hurling one against the other; and fasten him upon a seat, out of the reach of the many objects he has been in the midst of, and which he has been doing with, as nature intended. Yes, there we fasten him and make him bend his neck and fix his eyes on a plain, dry surface of paper. This he must not cut, fold, crumple, or variously shape in the way of cultivating his manufactured abilities. No, he must look straight down upon this metamorphosis of cotton. Were it but the rags out of which it came, many-shaped, many-hued, there would be something to hold the eye; but what does he see now? Words, words, words; little black immovable images, which he cannot handle with his fingers. What cares he for them? Nature made him care for things and for words too, just so far as they stand for the things he has to do with, or can have any clear idea of. He indeed has an appetite, if we may so speak, for words, so far as they convey ideas, but we do not consult his appetite, instead of which give him the words all of tasteless meaning. Before the child enters school, it is always things; then words. At school it is first words and then things; that is, if the pupil shall happen to come across them. Otherwise, he must go without such substantial acquaintance. Now this ought not to be. This period, lent by nature to prepare for future industry and livelihood ought not to be so unprofitably and wretchedly spent.

In all common sense and true philosophy, this paper-deadening, ink-blinding delusion, should be put away. But what take its place? Realities, life, thought, action, intelligence; just what the child has been forced to leave at his own home. This might be done, and how easily and cheaply done besides! Really it would not cost on the whole so much as school-weariness or school-hate costs, when it breaks over bounds and runs wild into mischief. In regard not only to school-hate but also of teachers-hate, I will give here but one example from the other side of the water, and indeed from Germany.

One cold December morning, when the school-children from a little village, who had to walk every day about half an hour to the school, found to their delight, that the school-house had burnt down. On their way home, they jumped for joy, and told everybody who asked them, why they returned so early and what was the cause of their delight? "The school is burnt down! the school is burnt down!" One school-boy, who was usually very tardy, was on said morning over an hour behind the time. As soon as he heard the good tidings, he was boundless in expressing his gratification. Then his first inquiry was, whether the school-master had burnt too. As soon as he heard that this was not the case, he

said with a sad face: "Then it is of no use, for he will keep school in another house, or perhaps in the church!" Quite in conformity with the aforesaid, says an eminent physician, recently president of the American Medical Association:

"After ages of child-suffering in penitentiaries, called school-houses, a few thinkers slowly concluded that the whole penal system of the public child instruction was a legitimated great public wrong, inflicted by the strong upon the weak. And PESTALOZZI astonished his contemporaries by the declaration that "a child is a child." He worked to make the dreaded prison, the school-house, a joyous place of re-union of happy children. Of course living teachers who had been made in the old way, and did not intend to learn any other, persecuted the philanthropist as a theoretical visionary, and gladly permitted him to pass away his life in neglect and poverty. But a few of the seeds he had sown fell upon good ground, and to-day he is immortal. FROEBEL, after PESTALOZZI, proclaims that "a child is a child." It is the recognition of this fact that sent women into the reformed school-houses as the natural teachers of the children, and the common sense of mankind will keep them there.

FREDERICH FROEBEL, the founder of the Kindergarten, after having devoted nearly a life-time to the education of adolescent children, said: We must begin at the beginning. There is too much to be undone in later years, that has been done wrong from the outset. He therefore addressed himself to the mothers, to the whole female sex to whom the care of our infancy is committed. It was FROEBEL, who first recognized in the child's earnest interest in play the spontaneous manifestation of those natural means of their development. Hence the profound significance of children's play, and the importance of the Kindergarten. I already stated, that FROEBEL considered America the most favorable country for Kindergartens.

Already more than forty years ago, in his *Education of Man*, in a chapter discussing emigration as one of the modes of obtaining his purposes, FROEBEL said: We must emigrate to the country that offers all the conditions for the existence of the genuine human-family life which renders the development of pure humanity possible, where such a life is at least sought and can freely develop.....All these conditions we find in America. It was one of FROEBEL's favorite ideas, and in one of his letters, which I mentioned before, he indicated how such a Kindergarten in America could be organized. The use of the Kindergarten material cannot be taught by books, says FROEBEL, because it is purely practical, because knowledge proceeds *only* from doing, *not* through the printed word, but by the living word, and the use to be shown with the object itself and also at once executed; and for this individuals are not only necessary who are acquainted with the American customs, etc., but also who have been especially educated, who speak and understand English. Of course everything should be prepared in America, and the way, so to speak, be paved, in order that the work might commence properly. I should think that with your (meaning FROEBEL's brother-in-law) or your friend's assistance such a Kindergarten could be carried out, which later on, might become a model institution—Kindergarten with Training

School for Kindergartners in America." Thus wrote FROEBEL twenty-five years ago from Marienthal near Liebenstein.

It is here worthy of remark that already the year before, after endeavoring in vain to have the rescript by the Prussian government prohibiting the Kindergarten taken back, FROEBEL exclaimed: "If they will not recognize and support my cause in my own fatherland I will go to America where a new life is unfolding itself in freedom and a new education of man corresponding with it will find a footing." Also the Baroness MARENHOLZ BULOW wrote me six years ago from Italy to the same effect when she said: "Upon America, where, in truth, a new world is forming, which possesses all the creative powers of a young state, where the individual enjoys full liberty, and no restraint prevents him from carrying out his own designs in his own way, we look as the field for our richest harvest. It is your and your friend's task to do all in your power to preserve FROEBEL's method in its purity, to keep the spirit and leading maxims of his wonderful system alive, which only thus can bring about the reform of education that PESTALOZZI and after him DIESTERWEG began, and not education alone, but the development of the human race in general, is concerned in the question. It is difficult to prevent people who have made a trade of it from lowering the principle of the method and reducing it to a kind of mechanism, but you must have the courage to struggle against it even at the risk of encountering hostilities. Here, in Italy, our cause has been very favorably received, and we found many who were willing to support it; the government too, assisted in the foundation of a new Kindergarten. We opened one at Florence where I had been lecturing during the winter until the first of March. It is conducted by one of my best Kindergartners, and promises to become a model institution. The locality is exceedingly convenient and has become a model institution. I hope soon also to hear from your own work, and that you will let me know what result the call 'to a participation in a General Educational Union' had, which I wrote from my deepest conviction. Here it was successful; we have several unions of the kind already. I was very glad to see that you understand the importance of the subject correctly, and also that you published and commented upon it in the two languages, German and English."

I can here but state in passing, that chiefly by the efforts of this woman, the *General Educational Union* grew out of the meeting of the Philosophers' Congress, at Frankfort-on-the-Main, in October, 1869, where FROEBEL's system received, for the first time, a searching examination, as may be seen by the following manifesto, published at the "*Augsburger Allgemeine Zeitung*," in May, 1869.

"The end of true philosophy is not speculative play, a mere luxuriating in abstract thoughts—nor even mental gymnastics, as many suppose it to be—but a universal comprehension of the intellectual as well as general condition of human life; the study of the laws of human society, and their development according to divine laws of a free unfolding and advance of human life and society. The true task of philosophy makes it the fundamental science, above all other sciences, and the educator of humanity. If this import and position of philosophy is here and there not

rightly understood, it is mainly the fault of the materialistic special scientists who close up the horizon of universal science and life of the mind, and hedge it in on the right and left, while they plod on in their narrow paths. True philosophy, as an educator, is ever active to clear away the barriers that stand in the way of clear, unbiassed comprehension of science and life in their relations and integrity. Philosophy raises the banner, not of any one special science, but of human culture, and however regarded by the materialists of the day as a foolish pursuit, it is the only basis of rightful education—nothing less than which has been the aim of all the eminent educators of our time, such as COMENIUS, PESTALOZZI, DIESTERWEG, FROEBEL. So far as the General German Teachers' Convention and the Assembly of the Austrian Teachers build on the foundations these men have laid, they work for the same ends as the Philosophers' Congress, from which they are only distinguished in this, that they have special educational aims, while the Philosophers' Congress takes into consideration all questions of interest to cultivated persons and society at large. A delegation was sent to the Teachers' Convention at Berlin, asking them to take part in the Congress at Frankfurt-on-the-Main; to aid, by word and co-operation, to solve the educational problems of the present, the most prominent of which are the completing and remodelling of the public schools, especially the establishing and re-organizing of Kindergartens, in accordance with the spirit of FROEBEL.

One problem to be solved in the establishing of a philosophical normal school for the training of educators and teachers, by which not only a remodelling and improvement of the primary, but also of the high schools, shall be attained. Finally they will ask for an improvement in female education, in accordance with the demands of the present time and the vocation of the female sex. As these points are felt to be of importance by every thinking educator, it is believed that all the teachers will meet with confidence and good-will, a convention of thinking friends of humanity, to devise means for its welfare. Such a convention the Philosophers' Congress seemed to be."

In answer to this, the Business Committee of the Teachers' Convention at Berlin issued the following call:

"The thought which animates our present time is the reformation of social conditions on the basis of adequate political and social legislation, and no demand is more pressing than the reform of public education in accordance with these aims. Whatever excellence our public-school system, as a means of instruction may have attained, the general education which it gives does not come near to fulfilling the demands of our time; because it is not adequate to give that firm moral basis to every member of the community, without which a great and strong nationality, and truly humane general conditions of society are impossible. The new era we approach needs better men; and these can only be expected to come by a true method of education.

"In the beginning of our century, education needed a new impulse; and it was given by PESTALOZZI and FICHTE who broke the road for the national education of Germany. But the question, what is the true humane mode of education, applicable to all men everywhere, comes up anew, and asks for the right means to fulfil its mission.

"FRIEDRICK FROEBEL, the great educational reformer of our era, in his system of education, promises these means. But, as yet, his method has been only partly and inadequately carried out in the widely-multiplying Kindergartens. It asks for a thorough investigation, on the part of scientific men, of the principles on which it is based; and if its claims prove to be well founded, it should be recommended to all governments and communities, and its adoption decreed. In view of the great importance of this question, an educational committee, which counts eminent scientific men among its members, was formed last year in Berlin, during the teachers' convention, for the purpose of taking the matter into consideration; and they are invited to attend the Philosophers' Congress as members, taking active part in it, discussing the general educational questions, and devising means to establish a central normal school for the education of male and female teachers, who may meet all the demands of our time in all directions; and an address to the government and school authorities of Germany for the reform of the normal schools, will be submitted for discussion."

In regard to the General Educational Union, it may briefly be stated that it is already, although small in number, the most important and most advanced of all educational associations in Germany, wide in its range and international in its character, extending its hand abroad for co-operation to all nations. The organ of the Union is "The Education of the Present," which seeks to set in operation means that shall bring about this reform, for which preceding systems have not provided. A few words by the Baroness only may be appropriate here to the principal means for accomplishing these ends.

"All development and unfolding require activity corresponding with the organism of natural motion, which is expressed in circulation and change of material. Activity, which touches spiritual development, is the exercise of an analogous law. Change of material finds the analogy in the spiritual world, in the opposing elements of taking and giving. The impressions of the outer world, taken in by the senses, are worked into representations in the inner world, in order to be given out again through human activity and its works. In this exchange of outer and inner activity consists the building up of man, and it corresponds to the chemical change of material in nature. The law which lies at the root of the inevitable facts going out from the self, may be called the law of facts. FROEBEL uses it for the guidance of childish activity, in order to bring this activity up to the point of representation and discovery, like the production of animal instincts, which also are founded upon law. That the expected result is thereby attained, proves the justness of the principle, which receives its whole significance, first through practical operations, whether FROEBEL expresses his law by the formula "the connection of opposites," or otherwise. As by contrasts (opposites) in every movement, that action and reaction are designated; so every thesis demands its antithesis, whereby arises synthesis. The principle laid down by FROEBEL, as the basis of his method of education, receives a wider significance by his application of it, because it effects the steady connection of spiritual and bodily activity, and, even in childhood, brings these up to the point of free

creativeness. The organisms of nature are formed after the general law determining each ; so the child must form itself out of his own being, but that is only possible when his action becomes creative, and his works mirror to himself his own individuality, as works of art are the reflex image of the artist. Thus one of the chief demands of our times is fulfilled, which will ennoble every work and excite to an activity worthy of man, while hand and heart work together, bodily and spiritual effort and use are united ; the work proceeds morally, and is a means of education which is not to be gained by mere mechanical activity. Only through the new beginning, which is made possible by FROEBEL's system of education, is the building up of society, according to present needs and conditions to be attained. Only through preparation in earliest childhood on all sides, will it be possible that the schools which follow the Kindergarten, and the means of education that follow schools, shall give the results of well-founded principles and cultivated powers in both intellectual and industrial pursuits. For in this manner the elements of knowing and doing become the property of all, and means and opportunity are offered for the endowment of all, by which still higher knowledge and doing may be secured for further development.

First Public Recognition of the Kindergarten Cause in America.

In this connection it may also be stated that the previously mentioned "Call" has given the first opportunity to a public recognition of the Kindergarten cause in this country,—namely, before several teachers' conventions, viz: As the second annual convention of the German American Teachers' Union, held at Cincinnati, Ohio, in August, 1871 ; at the third convention of the same Union, in Hoboken, N. J., July, 1872 ; at the twelfth annual convention of the National Educational Association in Boston, in August, 1872 ; at Elmira, N. Y., in August, 1873, by the convention of the same Association, etc. In regard to the first mentioned convention, I quote from an article in which a brief account is given on the second annual convention at Cincinnati, in August, 1871: "It was expected that an address on the 'Education of Girls' would be read by a lady, but a telegram, announcing that she could not be present, was received. Mr. JOHN KRAUS, of Washington, was requested to make some remarks. (Compare Report of the Commission of the Bureau of Education, 1871).

"Mr. KRAUS availed himself of the opportunity to call the attention of the convention to a document which, although offered last, he hoped would not be found the least interesting and worthy of consideration. It had been sent to him in order to publish in this country, and he deemed it proper to make it first known to the Teachers' Union—namely: Call to a participation in a 'General Educational Union.' The society had recently been formed in Dresden, embracing members from all parts of Germany and even Holland, England, and America ; that the 'Call' was signed by persons of high respectability and social and official position ; that the Association had a similar aim as the Philosophers' Congress in Germany, whose praiseworthy efforts were made to bring about and strengthen a cordial and sincere intercourse between school and home ; that just as the political association endeavored to explain political ques-

tions, so should it become the aim of the Educational Association to lay open to the people the true meaning of education, and to bring about a more effectual and cordial intercourse between parents and teachers; that FROEBEL has succeeded in opening family education and the nursery of his Kindergarten system; that its fundamental principle—being the same which PESTALOZZI carried out so ably—must become the groundwork of education by all nations; that for this reason, the aims, means, and fundamental principles of the General Educational Union were just as applicable in this country as in the Old World; that the Kindergarten system was a medium between home and school, and that it was especially the aim of the Union to bring both into co-operation; that the Union aims to make education and its improvement a common cause of the people, by the formation of branch societies, whose object is to introduce improvements in educational institutions for the better education of females; to multiply Kindergartens particularly people Kindergartens and unite them organically with the public schools, school-gardens, and youth-gardens as a continuation of the Kindergarten, &c. The fundamental principles of the society are, that the thorough improvement of our educational systems is to be secured by beginning with the life of the individual, that education should assist, but never disturb, a free development of the individual, in accordance with human nature, that the general aim of all education is to educate morally free, religious, and practically, able men and women; that the present time requires particularly that education should tend to the formation of character, to develop power to will and to do the beautiful ideal, and sublime; that the society acknowledges in FROEBEL's system of education the safest foundation for the early education of children, and finds in it leading features for all degrees of higher education."

At the third annual convention held in Hoboken, July, 1872, a special session, half a day, was assigned for a Section on Kindergarten. The committee exhibited several classes of Kindergartens and a collection of specimens of their work, but no preparation had been made, to show the kindergarten in working order. After the chairman had opened the debate, excusing slight shortcomings in the exhibition with unfavorable circumstances that prejudiced it, and pointed out the importance of FROEBEL's system of primary education for American life; there followed quite unexpectedly an attack on the Kindergarten, before hardly anything had been said in its favor. It was indeed to seek without any cause. The arguments proffered by the opponent have a hundred times been refuted in Europe through the success of genuine Kindergartners, viz: It destroyed family life as it exempted the mother from duties incumbent on her, and both the parents from the moral purpose of wedlock of providing an education for their offspring. Thus it took away the moral object of a married intercourse and prepared a state of things such as customary among Romanic nations, (for instance in Paris) where the child, immediately, or soon after birth, was estranged from the family and sent away to "crèches," which deserved the name of *spoiling institutions*! The family is the elementary unit of the state; destroy the family, and you subvert the state. But it was not the idea of the Kindergarten alone which was to blame, its practical application had led to grave mistakes.

The speaker was interrogated: How he would like a justifiable conclusion drawn from that argument, to-wit: "If the family is in duty bound to provide education—why! how can the existence of any kind of school be justified? Any other school arrogates to itself more duties pertaining to education than the Kindergarten does, all of which would seem to exclusively belong to the family. I will here but briefly recapitulate what was said over against the opposition, viz:—"that women's unions as the opponent desired, were impossible, before, in the course of a generation, all mothers had been educated for their calling; that of course the family must be considered as the elementary unit of society; but the individual has also social duties, must at an early age be accustomed to their fulfillment and to demanding equal duties rendered; that the Kindergarten would not substitute itself for the motherly care, but complement it, assist it; that the new ideas nourished in the child's mind by the Kindergarten are a treasure that is carried home and awakens the mother to an ever new activity toward utilizing it, facilitates her educational work and increases her love to the object of her tenderness and to her noble calling; that children according to Goethe, can be educated by such mothers only as are themselves educated; that but even the most obstinate optimist could maintain, that all, or most mothers were fit for educating; that the Kindergarten is not a supplementary expedient but the indispensable basis of all education; that some important auxiliaries are not offered to the child at home, as for instance: the uninterrupted intercourse with other children, the variety of useful and yet childlike occupations, the regular and harmonious exercise of the body; in fact all necessary opportunity for the development of physical and moral strength and independence, that all these opportunities the Kindergarten offers, a systematic order in its daily plays and by its varied means of occupation; that the child easily learns and improves among its companions. One serves as a model to the other—a model which is readily followed. The little ones stimulate each other; that which is familiar does not become tedious; that which is new presents no difficulties. The desire for imitation, this useful element in the child's constitution, finds ample scope in the Kindergarten, and is called into exercise without over-straining or fatiguing its faculties. This fact has long since been acknowledged, and is sufficient in itself to settle the dispute regarding the advantages of collective over isolated education.

Modern pedagogy proclaims the principle that all power of every individual be developed harmoniously. Formerly every individual was deemed predestined to a definite calling, high or low, not by dint of superior talent and development. All those who could not by dint of superior talent and their own exertion rise above the "vile multitude" were left to themselves as a "*massa perditionis*." Modern pedagogy advocates in opposition thereto the sublime idea, that every man can and should be developed into an ideal man; and it knows how to do it, if the development begins at an early age, before most of the child's powers have for want of exercise gone to rest, never to wake again. Humanity loses an invaluable capital which is sunk by the neglect of development of all the powers of every individual. We kindergartners know it from long

experience, that every child may become a musician, a draftsman, a modeller, a gymnast, a geometer, a speaker, all in one person, not all perfect or excellent in each of these branches, but skilful enough to derive untold advantages from all these attainments; every child may become a highly useful member of society, a true, human, and happy man. Considering that now-a-days such boons are allotted to a trifling minority only, we must with unspeakable regret deplore the enormous loss caused to the majority of men and to society by a lack of education. But this loss can be remedied through the Kindergarten only, by beginning the mental and physical development at a period, where all the various powers of every individual are not yet stifled or dwarfed by neglect. No mother, no family can do that unaided by science and art, such as modern pedagogy wields.

What a Kindergarten has to show are happy, healthy, good-natured children; but just children in their "Normal State" says KARL FROEBEL. But when attempting to describe the results of the developing system, I feel myself placed in a position somewhat like that of a musical performer who, in want of his instrument or his *orchestral band*, undertakes to describe the effects of his performance. I could satisfy my audience better by an actual performance of the art I profess, than by a description of its possible results.

At the convention of the National Educational Association held at Boston, August, 1872, no preparation had been made either by an actual performance of the Kindergarten, or exhibition of kindergarten apparatus, or work of any kind from the Kindergarten in Boston. However some kindergarten work had been carried from Hoboken and Newark by Dr. DOUAI in order to illustrate his explanations and Miss E. PEABODY illustrated her remarks by kindergarten work from Dresden, Germany, while Mr. W. HAILMAN read an elaborate paper on "Adaptation of FROEBEL'S System of Education to American Institutions."

After discussion in which some of the most prominent educators of the country participated, the following resolution was adopted:

Resolved, That a committee be appointed to inquire into the form in which FROEBEL'S principles of education may be most efficiently applied to the educational wants of our country, and to report at our next Annual Meeting.

That thus the kindergarten had found a national recognition could be perceived, by the appointment of the members of the committee from the different sections of this country, viz: J. W. DICKINSON, Mass.; W. N. HAILMAN, Kentucky; W. T. HARRIS, Mo.; JOHN KRAUS, Washington, D. C.; JOHN HANCOCK, Ohio; W. H. BAKER, Ga.; Dr. A. DOUAI, N. J. Thus at the National Educational Association, while about the same time the editor of one of our school journals declared that the kindergarten had been tried in America and given up; spoke about educational craziness and that he wished the Germans would stay at home with their beloved improvements.—In the same issue said Editor had the following item:—"Washington, D. C., National Bureau of Education. Prof. JOHN KRAUS in the Bureau of Education, writes us a letter accepting our proposition to write contributions for our Journal," &c. So I did. But when this offer

was made to me, I was not aware that the editor was suffering under such German phobia propensities.

That Germany is willing to learn of public education from America may be seen from the following letters: "Hamburg, June 30th, 1871. Dear Mr. KRAUS.....My heartfelt thanks for your information and documents. I am continuing SCHMIDT's History of Pedagogics. The duty of your school affairs is of the greatest importance to me. You have a great school organization, but not sufficiently pedagogical life as yet. We have mostly here the latter, but a pitiable school-organization and we must in this regard point to America, as the final model. A most possible connexion of the Old with the New World is therefore of extraordinary importance," etc.

I will offer but one more letter from Mr. A. S. KISSELL, Des Moines, Iowa, July 30th, 1872, to Mr. E. E. WHITE, Pres't National Educational Association, Boston.

DEAR SIR:.....As you noticed in the Universal German Teachers' Association that was at Hamburg, May 20th, 21st, 22nd, 1872, one of the most earnest and most successful educators of their number, Dr. LANGE, suggested an elementary school system for the Empire of Germany similar to that in most of the states of this republic. This Dr. LANGE questioned me most minutely, before this convention, about the American system of schools, and expressed his delight at the progress of education in this country. He complimented the American Nation as one of the most practical people in the world. While this is encouraging, we can still learn much from our trans-Atlantic co-workers about this true science and most skilful methods of instruction. Just such associations as the one of which you are the honored president will do much to unite educationists in the New and the Old World, as well as to awaken a professional sympathy and co-operation in the noble cause of human culture throughout the whole world." In passing, I will but mention, that Mr. KISSELL wrote also to me to the same effect, enclosing greetings from my colleagues, especially from Dr. WICHARD LANGE. Mr. KISSELL has consulted me, before he went to Europe, in regard to the Normal Schools and Kindergartens he should visit, with most profit. So it ought to be. Neither the Americans nor the Germans should stay at home with their beloved notions. What of the National windiness and the elations? said the valiant CZUMIKOWNUS, of Moscow, many years ago, at a German teachers' convention. The most advisable is that every nation strives after true culture, that none thinks herself better than the other. The national fancy and extravagance leads to reciprocal brawl of the nations, which our progressive age should energetically condemn and thus make impossible. Indeed the late Franco-German war as well as the present war between Russia and Turkey are sufficient illustrations. How different the illustration which has been given by ex-governor HORATIO SEYMOUR at the centennial celebration of the organization of the state government of New York, held at Kingston some weeks ago, in regard to the influence of the Dutch character upon the civilization of the new country, when he said: "The Hollanders were not only tolerant, but invited different nationalities and creeds to their new settlement. More enlightened than their age, they had made great advances in civil and religious liberty. They rejoiced in the cosmopolitan character of their inhabitants.

"The world has never witnessed a scene of greater moral beauty than the Bay of New York presented under the Dutch Government, and at a later day, while its just views of liberty continued to influence the community it had founded. There were, clustering around the beautiful harbor of New Amsterdam, communities representing different nationalities and creeds living in peaceful intercourse."

It was with this view that the best men of the human race looked upon America. KANT who stands among the wise by the side of PLATO and ARISTOTLE, was one of the first among the German nation to sacrifice personal favors to the cause of the United States. LESSING followed in the same steps. In his view the class of nobles had become superfluous. The lights of the world were they, who gave the clearest utterance to the divine ideas. In Weimar, HERDER declared himself in words of stately eloquence, in favor of a republic. The United States with its mountain ranges, rivers and chains of lakes, in the temperate zone, seemed to him shaped by nature for a new civilization. KLOPFER beheld in the American war the inspiration of humanity, and the dawn of a brighter day. GÖTTE, like everybody around him, wished the Americans success. The names of FRANKLIN and WASHINGTON were like stars in his firmament of politics and war. SCHILLER was inspired by similar sentiments. The mind of Germany was swayed by sympathy with the United States in their struggle for freedom. The best representatives of German intelligence joined in a chorus to welcome them to their place among the nations of the earth.

Kindergarten Section at Elmira in 1873.

This section has been, I am sorry to say, not very successful, although it has been commented on "the trenchant, practical expression of their views on the Kindergarten system, given by the National Educational Association, a council of prominent educators from all parts of the country, in the following pregnant resolutions passed by that body at its last annual meeting held at Elmira, N. Y., August, 1873, viz:

Resolved, That this Department of the National Educational Association, recognizing the Kindergarten as a potent means for the elevation of Primary Education, and for the development and promulgation of the principles of sound educational psychology, do recommend (the encouragement of) the establishment of Kindergarten institutions both public and private and also of a Normal institution for the special purpose of training Kindergarten teachers.

Resolved, That this Department of the National Educational Association do hereby urge upon the attention of all practical educators and Boards of Education, the importance of initiatory experiments with the intent to determine the best methods of connecting the Kindergarten with our current educational system."

Now it is true that these resolutions have been proposed by the referee, Dr. A. DOUAI, but it could not be expected by anybody that they could or should be adopted. Some of the members of the committee did not even think it worth while to be present while the report was read and discussed. I could not agree on the ground, that referee Dr. DOUAI had given an elaborate report on "What FROEBEL's System of Education is," while the com-

mittee had been appointed "*to inquire into the form in which Froebel's principles of education may be most efficiently applied to the educational wants of our country.*"

It is true, that a part of the report spoke also about "*how the system can be introduced into our public schools,*" but I considered especially this part of the report as the personal expression of the referee. It was for this reason that Mrs. KRAUS and myself made some supplementary remarks, in order to meet some of the time over and again made objections to the Kindergarten. By mistake these remarks have been published in the Journal of Proceedings of the National Educational Association under the head: "Mrs. JOHN KRAUS read a paper on FROEBEL's System." As for my part, I said, that it were a matter of course that FROEBEL intended to continue his system of educational development after the Kindergarten was absolved, that Austria had taken the lead in introducing and uniting the Kindergarten organically with the public schools; that I held in my hand the decree of the Austrian Minister of Instruction to that effect; that FROEBEL's ideal plan would only be completely appreciated when it had been applied in all degrees, and when the whole of the childhood from the earliest age to the close of youth shall have been passed *in the garden of the young youth-garden.*

In conclusion I will but mention in passing, that the most successful Kindergarten section before the National Educational Association was held last year at Baltimore, attended by a large audience and some of the most prominent educators of the country, the president and secretary of the Association, Mr. W. F. PHELPS and Mr. W. D. HENKLE included. Also the Brazilian commissioner of Education Dr. PHILIP DA MOTTA; Mr. G. VIDELA DORNA, chargé d'affaire of the Argentine Republic; Vice-minister of Education Mr. FUJIMARO TANAKA and Mr. TANETARO MEGATO, assistant, education department of Japan, attended from beginning to end, while Mrs. KRAUS was explaining the Characteristics of FROEBEL's method, Kindergarten training. The Prerequisites of a Kindergarten and explanations with Illustrations of the different gifts and means of occupation in the Kindergarten, using the Kindergarten work made by children as well as by ladies of our Normal Training School, taken from our exhibit at Philadelphia. Similar preparation has been made for the Kindergarten Section for this year, as you see here before you. We have here work from four of our pupils, three of whom are of Kentucky, viz: Mrs. CATTIE MADEIRA and Miss B. MADEIRA, and Miss M. PORTER, and Miss EMMA CLARKE, of Iowa. The latter will take charge of the Kindergarten of Mrs. NOLD, of Louisville, who has kindly furnished Kindergarten tables and material for illustrations by Mrs. KRAUS. But before taking my seat, I beg leave to say, that my theme, "The Kindergarten (its use and abuse) in America," affords matter rather for half-a-dozen lectures, than for half-an-hour's address. I intended to give a brief history of the growth of the Kindergarten in this country; to comment on the Kindergarten statistics in the Report of the Commissioner of the Bureau of Education; to give some striking illustrations to an article on "*The Kindergarten,*" by an American writer, which says:

"There are several difficulties which the promoters of Kindergarten work

have to contend with. America is a land of dabblers. Everywhere there are people who pretend to have Kindergartens, without even knowing what a Kindergarten is. Quacks seek to make money out of the popularity of the name. There are people who claim to have improved on the method at which FROEBEL arrived after a life-time of study and experience but who have never taken the trouble to understand the alphabet of the system." This quotation was aimed, as I was informed last year, against Miss E. M. COE in New York. Be that as it may, she has changed FROEBEL's motto: "Come let us live with our children" for her motto: "Come let us live with our Parents, instead of Servants." Indeed, one must have seen it in print, before one can believe it, that she claims to have "added to and improved the system of FROEBEL and adapted it to American enterprise, American taste, and American wants; that she has completed the unfinished Kindergarten alphabet and re-arranged some parts, making them accord with the order of nature" and to have discovered methods for reading and writing which were old before she was born. A long article under the head "A Model American Kindergarten," in which she has laid down her claims has been used as a circular and widely distributed at the Centennial Exhibition, as well as in New York, is nothing but a stringing together of glittering generalities, which I have placed in opposite columns in order to show where she has—borrowed them. Her "Bible Lesson, given at the American Kindergarten," one must also see in print, before one could think it possible, to talk thus to little children. I have given her the benefit, to produce it in full, without any comment, for there are things of which, in order to say the worst, one need to say nothing.

Not so lenient has been the writer of a little Tract under the head "Miss COE's American Kindergarten," which has been here distributed to-day; from which I will give but the critic on the Bible Lesson. After condemning the shameful, unwomanly deception, of criminal, degraded charlatanism—the more criminal and degraded because of its being practiced upon innocent little children, we read as follows:

"But the grandiloquent insolence of this woman is too much for human endurance in her infamous sketch of the Bible lesson given at the American Kindergarten, based on Revelation XXI. 10-27. Relying upon the approval and applause of a morbid religious sentimentalism, which, unfortunately, still is a power in the "land of freedom," she pours over the little sufferers a stream of fetid cant, thick with the most shameful hypocrisy, which, if repeated often enough, can not fail to make the child hostile to its nature; changing its love of truth into blind devotion to visionary imaginings, transforming its admiration of the beautiful into a senseless worship of the grotesque, and corrupting its struggles for the good into a slavish aping of customary propriety.

The Kindergarten, whose moral training is based upon the actual exercise of powers, as the physical and intellectual training is upon the actual exercise of corresponding power, has no need of such mystification. It founds its ethical work, too, upon the firm rocks of clear insight, earnest purpose, and honest endeavor, and all these are repressed or neutralized by the immoral verbosity of Miss COE's Bible Lessons.

Thus it appears that the pretentious "Model American Kindergarten"

begins with a theft—for the main part of the introduction of her circular is stolen from another writer upon the subject,—and ends in iniquity; the hollowness of the intervening positions has, we trust, been shown with sufficient clearness."

Now as to the sufficient clearness, I think it more to the purpose,—instead of using such violent language, to contrast Miss Coe's statements and claims in opposite columns and thus let her have the benefit of describing herself and her concern. In passing I can but mention that her circular for 1873-74—in which also Dancing and Bible Lessons were advertised—was still headed *Kindergarten School*. After finding out that FROEBEL called the schools for little children Hot-house—forcing-institutions, she—borrowed the name Kindergarten. Moreover, I found to my astonishment under the Kindergarten Statistics in the Report of the Commissioner of the Bureau of Education, for 1874:

"*American Kindergarten* by Miss E. M. Coe, New York.

Occupations of pupils: All FROEBEL's occupations, reading, writing, arithmetic, history, botany, natural history, and French.

Apparatus and appliances: FROEBEL's gifts, maps, charts, globes, &c.

Effect of the system: Very satisfactory.

As soon as I saw this report, I reminded General EATON forthwith of the fact, that the Kindergarten is but intended for CHILDREN OF BETWEEN THREE AND SEVEN YEARS, and that this fact at least should have been stated in a foot-note; that Miss Coe might call her concern whatever she pleased, but should not be allowed in such a document as the Report of the Bureau of Education, to caricature the Kindergarten, merely in order to make money out of the popularity of the name. Thus in 1874. What next?

1875:

Report of the Commissioner of Education, p. 610-611. *American Kindergarten*. Miss E. M. Coe, New York.

Occupation of pupils: FROEBEL's occupations.

Apparatus and appliances: only filled with.....

Effect of the system: Very satisfactory.

Advertisement in New York papers: Kindergarten and Training Class for mothers and teachers, reopens, Sept. 22d, 1875, at 44 East 43d Street. Oldest and best Kindergarten in the city. *All the Froebel occupations taught thoroughly*. Miss E. M. Coe, Principal.

N. B.—thus in 1875, when she taught all FROEBEL's gifts *thoroughly* and claimed to *keep* the Oldest and best Kindergarten in the city (of New York), while she claimed in 1876 to have the best Kindergarten on the Globe; to have added to and improved the system of FROEBEL, &c.

We read in her circular of 1876:

1876:

"In no other Kindergarten, either in this country, or in Europe, have we seen instruction so well directed by a certain order of succession, adapted to the first unfolding of the child's powers, and progressing exactly parallel to the development of those powers.....

"Miss Coe does not ignore the light thrown upon the methods of educating the young, by the founder of the German system.....

FROEBEL systematized the philosophical views of PESTALOZZI, making them in a measure lucid and practical.

"Miss Coe has added to and improved on FROEBEL, and adapted it to American habits, American enterprise, and American taste.".....

The American Kindergarten lengthens the term of instruction....

So much at present. But I have to say something more after I have seen or heard from the Report of the Kinderdarten Exhibit at the Centennial. In the mean time Miss Cox may console herself in regard to the statements of her claims with the Irish Song:

Chorus: They must be true!

Solo: Why?

Chorus: Because they are in the papers.

I would, however, not say another word, if she only would not use the term Kindergarten, but produce a name for her would-be inventions and improvements. There are other persons, and indeed "would be" fine advocates of the Froebelian Kindergarten cause, who do perhaps nearly as much harm, as she does; but it is not so easy to expose them and to prove it.

Mrs. KRAUS then read the following paper on

THE KINDERGARTEN AND THE MISSION OF WOMEN. MY EXPERIENCE AS TRAINER OF KINDERGARTEN TEACHERS IN THIS COUNTRY, WITH ILLUSTRATIONS OF THE WORK OF THE LATTER.

It has been said that teachers and educators must be born,—and it is true,—not everybody has the peculiar talent *to educate*,—though we all are continuously and at all times either pupil or educator. Many believe, that, in order to teach and educate, nothing else is needed than pupils! the rest comes by itself. The vocation of a teacher is often regarded as "no vocation at all." A woman loses her father or husband—is suddenly reduced in her outward circumstances, must henceforth earn her living—and she becomes a teacher, whether she understands the art of teaching—or not. The same it is with the man: he does not prosper—he loses an office—and meanwhile, until there is another opening—he becomes a teacher. This was formerly even *more* so the case, than now; for since education has become the object of deeper thought, the case is altered, and there are found just as many educators and teachers who are *trained* as well as *born* for the vocation, though certainly he or she *must be the better* teacher, who was endowed by nature with the natural capabilities and talents. This also may be said of the mother as well as of the Kindergärtner. Nowhere is at present perhaps trespassed so much, as in the Kindergarten,—and in particular in the *training of Kindergärtners*. Persons seeing a Kindergarten *once*, or who have read about the System, fancy that they can do *the same* work right away, particularly if they can find a Guide-book to *imitate*. Others, without even ever having seen a Kindergarten "improve" or "Americanize" it. In their ignorance they are not aware of the fact, that FROEBEL's System of Kindergarten was never meant for *one nation* or for *one denomination*. As there is *one law* throughout all nature,—so in the Kindergarten, which is founded on nature, and is *meant for all mankind*. On the last Anniversary of FROEBEL's birthday we held a meeting of Kindergärtners in New York in our Institute, when Mr.

JOHN KRAUS—speaking on this point—said: “One could just as well speak about American Christianity, American Beatitudes, American Sermon on the Mount, American golden rule, etc., adapted to American wants, as to speak about an American Kindergarten adapted to American wants.”

The very cancer in the true progress of Kintergartens is, that practical Kindergärtners *attempt to train others* without having the proper preparation for this branch of the Kindergarten. By doing so Kindergärtners gain cheap Assistants, receive perhaps even a small fee. And the result of this is again, that persons, desirous of becoming Kindergärtners, and not having the right knowledge in regard to this, rather choose this cheap opportunity, instead of going to the regular Training Schools, in this results of course in *mechanical-practical* Kindergärtners instead of in *theoretical-practical* ones, who again believe themselves entitled to train others similarly, etc., etc. In passing I will here give a short outline of my own preparation for the work, I have carried out successfully now for many years; My own education was a most liberal one and according to Kindergarten principles: besides this, there were the advantages of my father's and mother's position in society.—I studied the Kindergarten System when a young girl, and it was FROEBEL's widow who became my teacher and friend. Free choice and love for the little-ones led me to adopt this vocation. I had many advantages of being an inmate of Madame FROEBEL's household. She unveiled many a thought of FROEBEL to me, which otherwise I never should have become acquainted with; I studied his writings with her; she allowed me to investigate precious work done by him or under his directions. I attended all her different classes, having besides the advantage of her continuous private instruction. The Seminary for teachers I visited also twice per week where pedagogues of high repute lectured and taught, and where I was thrown together with the Kindergärtners of the City. I became acquainted with FROEBEL's niece, ALWINE LANGE, the daughter of MIDDENDORFF, FROEBEL's intimate friend and co-worker,—who was the first active Kindergärtner in Hamburg,—and also with Dr. WICHARD LANGE, husband of the former, an eminent educator and Editor of FROEBEL's works. By and through their conversations I heard much of FROEBEL's ideas, which he first carried out at Keilhau, then at Marienthal, viz: “*the Educating Family*.”—Many of FROEBEL's old pupils visited his widow—during that time, which, of course, could not but have a good effect on me. Here my mind was early directed to America, the land—as FROEBEL thought—was the right one where his educational ideas would take best root. Similarly the Baroness MARENHOLTZ-BÜLOW expresses herself in a letter from Italy to JOHN KRAUS.—For this purpose I needed to be familiar with the English language, and therefore I went later to another gifted pupil of FROEBEL to London, where I taught gratuitously in Madame RONGE's Kindergarten, which was visited by the poorer class of children,—and which work was indeed by all who—took part in it—a work of love—of humanity. With this able propagator of the cause I learned to view the Kindergarten from another point of view, and I became more and more impressed, how much culture there was needed in order to do first-class work. French I spoke when I was seven years old,—still I went to Paris and continued my studies in that direction. *Music*

was taken up again; also drawing and modelling; a regular study of gymnastics was made. Also the various branches of the Kindergarten System, —one at a time—were taken up and studied again, viz: the theory and practice of the games and of story-telling; the different gifts and occupations of the Kindergarten; mathematics; the history of education, etc., etc. But I never attempted to train others for the profession—until that happy day came, when Madame FROEBEL called me to join in her work, and to take chiefly charge of the "Training School for Kindergärtners."

Five years ago I came to America, and, of course my work here could only begin gradually. It was only a week after I had opened the Kindergarten that General JOHN EATON, the Commissioner of Education, paid us a visit and expressed considerable interest, which since he has manifested on many occasions. After having fairly started the Kindergarten I invited the Mothers once per week in the afternoon, when I lectured to them on the subject, showing also practically the use of the Kindergarten material, and so interested became these ladies, that they hardly missed an afternoon. One day a young mother said with tears in her eyes: "You make us feel so very responsible in regard to our children, that it makes me tremble to think of it; why are not *girls* taught and prepared like this *before* their marriage?"

The Kindergarten will never gain its highest aim as long as the mothers keep at a distance, as long as they merely *send* their children into the Kindergarten; and *therefore* should the Kindergarten pedagogue be introduced as an object of learning in the upper classes of our girls' schools, *thus* making the beginning for home-education. Not only the conductors of Kindergartens shall learn to be Kindergärtners, *i. e.*, to understand childhood in its being, and in consequence to foster and educate,—no—all womanhood of every position in life shall accept the new education of mankind, shall learn to apply it as a gardener especially ordained for training childhood.

During my first year's work in America I did not wish to open a regular Training School for Kindergärtners, because I had *first* to organize my Kindergarten and make it a "model" as far as that could be done during one year's work—a thing *entirely* overlooked in this country. My first pupil was Miss SUSAN BLOW, of St. Louis, whom I had been persuaded to receive as a private pupil and daily assistant in my Kindergarten. I also invited her to the Mothers' Class. Here I need not speak about her, for her subsequent successful work in St. Louis is known. Since in the Mothers' classes we had each year successively, the prominent feature was: Nursery-training,—the education of the child *under* the Kindergarten-age.

Abroad we train the Nurses after FROEBEL's, principles, whereas here—in America—there are no Nurses to be trained. The American girl "aspires" to other, though not better things. A place in a shop, or to become a teacher, stands in her eyes mostly higher than a "first-class" Nurse or so-called "Nursery governess" who is esteemed and loved by all the members of the family; who stands *equal* with the children and is raised continually by the father and mother of the family. In Hamburg, Germany, there has been established a "*School for Kindergarten-Nurses*" since many years by a dear old friend of mine, Madame JOHANNA GOLD-

SCHMIDT, the mother-in-law of *Jennie Lind*. In a smaller degree I carried out a similar thing in Lübeck, Germany. Also in Berlin is a large and prospering school of this kind. Mr. W. WALKER says: "The true, real nurses have to be made. Nurses for sick people are trained in a regular training institution. Where is the institution for training nurses for children of our gentlefolk? I am not here merely to advocate the Kindergarten System, but let me say, that where there is, in the midst of a poor population, a well-conducted Kindergarten, the poor man's child has a wiser, more scientific, more natural and happy, and more useful nursery than is to be found in a rich man's house. There one may find young girls who have been taught and trained in those common-sense subjects, and those wise and patient modes of dealing with children, the want of which has been a perpetual loss to those we most love." "But not only should there be Training Schools for nurses and governesses—but such an amount of pecuniary remuneration should be offered, as will command a better class of girls; for, whilst warehouses and shops can offer high wages and more liberty, we can have only the residuum of young females from which to select those who are to join in sowing seeds—and *what seeds?*—Seeds which will develop a harvest of good or bitter fruit in the heart and lives of our children! So long as we pay our nurses and governesses as little, or less, than we pay our cooks, or the coachman who cares for our horses, or the gardner who supplies our table with flowers,—how can we reasonably expect to meet with persons fit and capable to tend those nobler and more precious plants which are growing up around our hearths. This, then, is what is wanted,—that mothers shall take a higher view of their work and their helpers; and that nurses shall be *selected, educated, and raised to a higher sense of their work, and be better paid, and thus take their proper and legitimate status as the deputy mother.*" Now let us ask the question: "What preparation have the mothers had for this kind of life? Where were they schooled? What have they read? In what school-nursery have they studied?" These are inconvenient questions, no doubt; but they ought to be put and answered too. It is said, that true education is that which best fits a man for the after-duties of life. And we ask again: "Where were the mothers trained?" It may be replied, that the demands of society upon our time are such, that nursery-claims and duties must be deputed to others. Never. *Nursery-work* may; but *never nursery-claims and responsibilities.* I wonder how much time for making calls, taking journeys, etc., etc., the birds have when bringing up their warbling families. It is true, *some* are fond of travel,—the swallows, to-wit,—but I think they wait until their little-ones are grown, and then take them with them; and though they may do a good deal of visiting and gossip during the season, they come back again and settle to serious work. This illustration suggests to one a small double-rule-of-three sum, which might be put *thus*: "If two sparrows, which are sold for one farthing, take such care of their young ones, *how much more care should human mothers take of their little ones, whose value is beyond calculation?*"

After all, the mother must have what are appropriately called "helps," or commonly "nurses;" and here again we are on a delicate and difficult

ground. Who are these nurses,—or really for the time being, *these deputy mothers?* and what are their requirements, their acquirements, and qualifications? They must be full of goodness and truth, of great common sense or wisdom, of great tact or ready sense, intelligence, having no end of patience, and the love—*almost* of a mother. The great social changes that must obtain in this or any other country, before there can be any great improvement, as a nation, must be in the parents on the one hand and the nurses, governesses, and teachers on the other. Now, that so many educated, able, and influential men are permanently devoted to the work of teaching, and that in consequence Pedagogy is beginning to rank with Law, Medicine, and Divinity, as one of the true professions, the world begins to feel that, like Law, Medicine, and Divinity, Education must be entrusted to the specialists who thoroughly prepare for it. Those unlearned in the Law do not venture to controvert the opinion of able lawyers. The judgment of skilful physicians receives the implicit confidence of those unacquainted with medicine and surgery. So now it is beginning to be tacitly admitted, that only those who have made educational problems a careful study, are competent to have charge of educational interests, both local and general."

A large number of ladies came to our Normal Training School for Kindergärtners, and among them have been teachers from Normal Schools, principals of other Ladies' High Schools, and other ladies of culture from different parts of the country. Our standard-point is: One year's training and a second year of practical work in a Kindergarten,—that makes the Kindergärtner if otherwise qualified for it. Learning by "apprenticeship" will never make a Kindergärtner, though it may be of infinite value to any girl. Such learning by apprenticeship, where merely a knowledge of the practical work is acquired, may be found in many instances in this country as well as in Europe, and these so-called Kindergärtners look upon the Kindergarten-work as a sort of "drill;" they again receive pupils in a similar manner—which cannot but harm the System. A good Kindergärtner should not only be a Kindergärtner, but at the same time a good teacher, thus verifying the saying: that a good Kindergärtner may become any day a teacher,—but not vice versa.

Unfortunately there are also among the Kindergärtners such as imagine that they are "finished" the moment they own a Certificate; whereas it should be remembered: that if the most gifted lady had been in the best of Training Schools, she has received nothing but the *foundation* upon which to build as long as she belongs to the profession. We receive many letters from persons, asking us to "recommend them a 'first-class Kindergärtner' who is able successfully to open a Kindergarten and also a *training class* forthwith."—Now *either* people must imagine that, because it is *only* for little children, there cannot be much to study in it; *or* they must fancy: that Kindergärtners are super-human creatures who can do more than others. For example: would a young medical student, who has just graduated, be thought fit to start a Medical College and train physicians? The idea alone strikes one as being ridiculous! And if it were the most gifted young doctor—*experience* must be added to his other knowledge,—he must by years of studious work in practice and theory *verify* what he learned,

extend his knowledge, so, that when beginning to teach others, he stands above them. It is not enough that ladies should pass through the training class. Just as a person would not be a good swimmer who only listened to the theory of swimming,—so the best school of practice is in the Kindergarten itself in order to acquire strength and power.

Among the many ladies who made application for the training-classes, were also some tired-out school and music teachers, also some shop-girls; they however did not enter, partly because their strength would not allow it, or because they had not the means to support themselves during the year,—or because they had not had the education necessary for such a course. We should have liked to help them,—but this was not within our power. Now—after five years of work in this country—we have learned, that it was well they were not admitted; for the result is, that our training-school is visited by the better—if not the *best* class of *cultured* women who give their whole time and energy, enabling us to enter into as deep a study as we choose, leading them farther on than we could have done, had we received the above-mentioned ladies, whose health would probably have broken under the strain of work. Of course, our pupils were not equally gifted; one had this talent,—one another one,—one was perhaps musical—or had literary inclinations, etc., etc., which either during the course of training became their peculiar strong point,—as all their talents and knowledge combined did after all not make them Kindergärtner—because they could not impart it to others. Again, other pupils of the training-school, although not brilliant, could, with perfect simplicity, carry out the right thing practically in the Kindergarten.

We do not value much the Diploma or Certificate usually given at the end of a course; but still, we do give it, because our pupils value it. According to our idea a Kindergärtner must *prove herself to be one*, before she may be called so justly; and therefore her *first* year's work is nothing more nor less than her *test* work. She may put in writing her ideas and knowledge of FROEBEL's principles a hundred times,—still that does not make her a Kindergärtner because of this being so eminently a practical profession. Therefore it may be seen that to give a Diploma *to train others* is out of question where the person has not been tested and testing herself by *years* of faithful work and preparation: "and by their fruit they shall be known."—Our pupils, during the first year of training, as a rule are *not* our assistants. For—*how could* they instruct and guide the little ones in the proper way as long as they have not been taught *how*? The pupils of our Training School at first "look on"; then, as they become acquainted with the various gifts and occupations, we allow them, by degrees,—to superintend first one child, then two, three, and more children. This last year we were enabled to admit our pupils—thirty-two in number—every day into our large Kindergarten-hall and rooms, which was of the greatest advantage, and rarely found in Training Schools of this kind. Such practice gives a true foundation for the theory according to FROEBEL. To become acquainted with the *praxis* of the Kindergarten in the living intercourse with the children, under the supervision and instruction of an experienced and judicious Kindergärtner together with occasional "test-lessons," *must* be more effective than only one morning in the Kindergar-

ten—even if the number of lessons in the theory were doubled. Only *thus* the “is to be Kindergärtner” enters the true spirit which pervades the Kindergarten from beginning to end; only thus she is able to perceive for herself, how, from week to week, the development of the children progresses, and thus together with the instruction she receives in the Training School, her own judgment ripens.

I see by the various plans of the exercises in different Kindergartens, that often there is too much stress laid on the *occupations*, and the *Gifts* are neglected. Why? because it is far easier to use the occupations which show-off in the end by the result of the actual work, whereas in the *Gifts* there are in the end only *unseen* though most valuable results. The explanation of the Fifth Gift in our “Guide” would demonstrate this at once. The effect of the Kindergarten System on the female portion of the population will proceed from two sources at once: from the better training of children, and from the more complete education of those, who are to train them. The advantages of a system which places infant training in the hands of educated women, can, perhaps, not be too highly estimated. All persons are unfit to educate who are themselves not educated, or educated badly, which with the adult comes nearly to the same thing, and it is one of the chief merits of the Kindergarten-System, that uneducated persons are expressly excluded from all share in their management. When the play-room, the garden, and the playthings are provided, success will still depend on the manner in which they are used, and therefore on the person who conducts the Kindergarten. For this most grateful, though by no means easy duty, a class of persons must be secured, who are naturally fond of children and inclined to enter into their feelings; who easily perceive their wants, and are rich in resources to supply them—persons of a pure, loving heart, cultivated mind, and possessed of accomplishments. They must be able to sing songs, to invent games, tell stories, and draw pictures to illustrate them; they must know something of natural history, have a distinct notion of the powers of the human mind, and the general laws of their development, and understand the principles of moral philosophy, sufficiently to know that a little child must not be treated too early as a responsible agent. By such knowledge alone can the gross mistakes so commonly committed in the training of children, be avoided. The greater majority of ladies take up this calling as yet more from *external* motives, than from inward vocation; but so truly it proves to be woman’s vocation, that before the year is out—they have become devoted, earnest disciples. Modifications in the degree of culture as well as the inner calling must, of course, be granted. The first and chief condition for the culture of good Kindergärtner, who are naturally fitted and prepared by study for the calling, is: that sufficient time shall be claimed for their instruction, as only a conscientious and zealous study can lead to the true end. Many of those bowed down by sad destiny have found in this work consolation and new courage to live. And many who were living without an aim, have drawn from it the most satisfactory activity, and many without means the necessary support of life.

In conclusion Mrs. KRAUS illustrated with the Kindergarten Material, supplied by Mrs. NOLD, of Louisville, Ky., and from the work of the following of Professor and Mrs. KRAUS's pupils of their Normal Training School for Kindergärtners in New York, viz: Mrs. CATTIE MADEIRA and Miss BESSIE MADEIRA, of Covington, Ky.; Miss M. M. PORTER, of Eminence, Ky.; Miss EMMA CLARKE, of Dubuque, Iowa, now Kindergärtners in Louisville, Ky. The illustrations were supplementary to those which Mrs. KRAUS gave last year at Baltimore before this Association, resting particularly, not only on the physical and mental, but especially on the moral effect. This was followed by an interesting and instructive discussion.

When Mrs. KRAUS in her illustrations spoke of the tablets, she said, that "the laying games with the tablets are also a good preparation for mat-plaiting; for almost all the patterns in mat-plaiting can likewise be represented by the different tablets; and that the patterns produced by the tablets can also be utilized in practical life for patterns of flowers in wood or stone, for an inlaid table, a work-box, etc. Such exercises are, therefore, not only acknowledged as valuable perceptions to the child, on account of the mental training which they afford, but they can also be utilized in the practical affairs of life. As an example of this, the following occurrence, of which I was an eye-witness, I will here give. I was at the time studying with FROEBEL's widow, who had been selected by him, from among his best pupils, to carry forward, under the prestige of his name, the work which he had inaugurated. One morning a stranger, to all appearances a working man, bringing with him some large object carefully wrapped in paper, called upon Mrs. FROEBEL. He apologized for the liberty he was taking, but explained that his little boy now about five years old, had been for two years past a pupil in the Kindergarten. He stated he himself was a joiner by trade, but as he had not sufficient means to carry on this occupation with profit, he had, some time since become greatly discouraged and disheartened. It was about this time that he noticed his little boy, who was accustomed to come into his workshop to play, when returning from the public Kindergarten which Mrs. FROEBEL was conducting, and watched him as he played with the chips which he found scattered around the shop. At first the father had not paid much attention to the child's play, but one day he noticed that he had made a combination of very beautiful forms consisting entirely of triangles which he changed regularly and methodically from one form into another. Becoming interested he sat down by the child's side, learning from the little one. After a while he too began to arrange the forms in the same way and according to the law of opposites so unconsciously carried out by the child—a law which the maturer mind of the man grasped at once. The result of this occupation was that in time he had manufactured some very beautiful tables, the surfaces of which, formed according to the rules practiced in the Kindergartens, were inlaid with parti-colored wooden triangles. These tables he had disposed of at a considerable profit, he had been enabled to relieve the wants of his family and better his own circumstances; his trade had materially increased and he was now becoming quite prosperous. He, therefore, called upon Mrs. FROEBEL to ex-

press his gratitude and begged to offer her as a token of his thankfulness the little table which he had made and which showed upon examination, the star-forms produced by following the law of opposites, which his little boy had been taught to find in the Kindergarten.

An instance, how in the Kindergarten a child was cured of selfishness and greediness:

If time would permit, I could give many instances in order to show, how the fellowship in the plays, the prevailing freedom and gaiety conjointly call forth in the hearts of the children moods and sentiments which may be considered the forerunners of a conscious love of the good and the beautiful. Elements so injurious to the heart as a stubborn seclusiveness, obstinacy, quarrelsomeness, imperiousness, or pride, are entirely banished from these regions. It cannot be conceived—unless seen—of what importance it is, when children are brought and kept together on the principles of harmonious work and of equal claims to culture, development and the care of the Kindergärtner. Here more opportunities offer to be kind and forbearing; selfishness is given up, the good example of others is followed, and it becomes a habit for life. Here but one example, the outgrowth of the social meal, the children's lunch-time: One little boy of five years brought a very large and choice luncheon; he ate more than he needed, and hardly ever could eat all he brought. It happened several times that one child or another had forgotten his lunch. For this emergency I kept a box with crackers; but in order to cure our little "Epicure," I did *not* offer the crackers, and asked *him* instead to give his friend who sat next to him *without* anything to eat on his plate, some of *his* luncheon which he thought he would not need. He shook his head and said: "Now I don't want any more, but I shall eat it all when I go home,"—and without taking notice of the other child he put the remains of his luncheon into his basket. I did not give him up—I knew—though loving his food too much,—he would learn to overcome this weakness. The next morning, finding that another child had forgotten his lunch, I tried the little boy again; but he had still the same answer for me: *Now* I don't want any more, but *I shall eat it all up* when I go home." This continued for a week. The following week in the morning, when all the children were assembled, instead of telling them a story as I mostly always did, I began to speak about the sparrows which the children could see on the balcony and in the Park, and that *they* could see the children at their luncheon, and that—in the sparrow-language—they had expressed their surprise, that the children never gave them a crumb of their luncheon. I showed the children a box, which I would send round the tables to all the children, so that they might help to feed the hungry birds. Every child put something into the box—some gave rather too generous a share, some only a few crumbs—only the boy for whose benefit this had been arranged, refused to give anything. "I shall eat it all up," he said—as before. Of course, I did not yet give him up, but—persevered. After a few days, when at lunch-time the box was again sent round, as we did now daily, our little boy took a *roll* from his basket and placed it in the box, saying with a broad smile: "that is for the sparrows." I said: "that is very kind in you to give some of your

lunch to the sparrows,"—when he answered to my dismay: *I bought it for the sparrows; my own lunch I will eat all myself!* What could be done? Nothing but—persevere. Again some days passed, and the little boy bought daily a special roll for the sparrows—in order that *his own* dainty lunch he might *eat all up*, as he always termed it. At last one morning—he came to the Kindergarten and brought *no* roll for the sparrows—and broke off a tiny piece of his own luncheon,—and his face was shining with pleasure whilst he did so. Each following day he contributed a larger share for the "poor hungry sparrows," and after a while he was one of the most generous children in the Kindergarten.

DISCUSSION.

Prof. RICHARDS, of Washington, arose to ask a question as follows: "How many of this audience, who have listened to the papers and explanations on the subject of Kindergartening are now able to give a clear and satisfactory account of it? How many can now go home, and say to their friends, 'We understand Kindergartening?' Will any one reply?"

As no one is ready to reply I wish to make a few remarks. In the *first* place, let me say that I believe in the *principles* upon which, I understand, the Kindergarten is based; and I further believe, that they are the true principles, upon which the work of Elementary School training should be based.—FROEBEL evidently saw that the usual method of training children did not recognize, as it ought, that every child has a *physical*, as well as an *intellectual* and *moral* nature; and that the training of these natures should be carried on together—"that the *five senses* should be trained, *pari passu* with the intellectual powers.—But I am inclined also to believe, that in the *practical part* of FROEBEL's System of Kindergarten training, there are erroneous notions.

In the *first place*, the child is not to be considered or treated as a young, uneducated angel, but as a human being, inclined "to go astray as soon as he is born;" and no kindergarten training can ever make him an angel.

But in the second place, I desire to show what I am forced to consider a great mistake in the System, in not incorporating *language training* as one of its essential parts.

Four years of the child's life, and the most impressible portion of it, from three to seven years of age, are spent in mastering FROEBEL's twenty gifts. The child's sense of hearing is trained, I admit, to get ideas from sounds, words, and names; but no effort is made to qualify the child to gain ideas through *printed word-signs*, which are the great storehouse of ideas to be gained through the medium of sight.

He is taught to give names to all sorts of figures, and geometrical forms, when presented to his eye, but he is kept ignorant of the printed word-forms which represent the same ideas.

Take the *first gift*—a ball. The child is carefully taught to call that pretty object *a ball*; and that it is *round*, &c. Now, while the child can understand the word *ball*, and the meaning of the word *round*, through

the ear, why can he not understand the same words, at the same time, by presenting their *form* to the *eye*? Surely he can do this just as readily as he can give the name hexagon to a figure of six sides, upon paper.

The Kindergarten offers one of the richest opportunities for language training; or for getting ideas from printed words.

What the child most needs in early training, is to become familiar with the word-forms, which represent ideas, so that he may learn how to use them and gain knowledge himself. He should get ideas of course, and get them *methodically* but he should also become just as familiar with their representative word-forms. *Words, names, and the ideas* they represent, are what our children need to learn.

The discussion was continued by J. J. RUCKER, of Georgetown, Ky.

The Committee on the Nomination of Officers reported the following, which was adopted:

President, GEO. P. BROWN, Indianapolis, Ind.

Vice-President, SARAH E. RICHMOND, Baltimore, Md.

Secretary, WM. J. DAVIS, Louisville, Ky.

Adjourned.

Third Day's Proceedings.

THURSDAY, AUGUST 16, 1877.

The Department met at 3 P. M. Miss LYDIA D. HAMPTON, of Louisville, Ky., read a paper on

FIRST LESSONS IN READING.

[This paper was in the hands of the Secretary, but at the request of the writer was returned for revision. The revised copy has not been received.]

After the reading of the paper Miss HAMPTON gave a practical illustration of the method presented.

The card class consisted of six children of from four to six years of age. The reading class (First Reader) consisted of fourteen children that had been under instruction from two to ten months. The following were the pieces read:—"The Fireside;" Tennyson's "Lullaby;" "Pulling Grand-Pa's Hair;" "The Runaway Boy;" "Benny and his Rabbits;" "John's Ride;" "The Fox and the Grapes." There was not time to call on the remaining members of the class.

Adjourned.

INDUSTRIAL DEPARTMENT.

First Day's Proceedings.

TUESDAY, AUGUST 14, 1877.

The Industrial Department met in one of the rooms of Liederkrantz Hall at 3 P. M.

The President and Vice-President both being absent, the meeting was called to order by the Secretary, who read the following letter from the President of the Department:

LANSING, MICH., Aug. 9th, 1877.

PROF. C. Y. LACY,

Dear Sir:

I regret that circumstances beyond my control will prevent my being present at the meeting of the National Educational Association at Louisville.

The meeting promises to be an interesting one, and the papers to be read in the Industrial Section will undoubtedly prove valuable aids to those engaged in Industrial Education.

With the best wishes for the success of the meeting and exceedingly regretting my inability to be present,

I remain yours truly,

M. MILES.

On motion of Hon. S. R. THOMPSON, Dr. J. R. BUCHANAN, of Louisville was elected Chairman *pro tempore*.

The Hon. S. R. THOMPSON, of Nebraska, then read the following paper on

RELATIONS OF THE COMMON SCHOOL TO INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

Prof. THOMPSON, on taking the floor, remarked that the ground of his paper had been so well covered by the opening address of the President of the General Association that he would attempt little more than a summary as follows:

Our common schools may be divided into two classes, quite different in their condition and management. The ungraded schools mostly found in the country districts, and the graded schools of the towns. In the latter are included the Free Public High Schools. He would confine his remarks principally to the country schools:

The term "Industrial Education," as used, has two meanings. First

—Education for the industries. Second—Education in the industries. As things are, it is not practicable to do much in the way of teaching trades or any kind of industrial employments in connection with public ungraded schools, though in cities or in High schools something of this kind may be done. He would speak principally of industrial education in the first sense, that of education which prepares for the profitable pursuit of the industries.

The elements of industrial education—using the term in the sense just specified—ought to include thorough, clear, definite and working knowledge of at least the following: (1.) Reading of our language as embodied in written words, and the language of form as embodied in drawing. The language of words and the graphic language should be made equally familiar. (2.) The power of giving expression to thought in the two forms mentioned before—writing and drawing. (3.) The art of computation for business purposes and the keeping of accounts. (4.) The leading social, moral, and political principles by which the laborer is related to the State, to capital, to other laborers, and the obligations and duties to which these give rise. (5.) The sciences which underlie the various industrial processes.

In order to see clearly how our primary education may be better adapted to the wants of the working classes, let us recall some of the ways in which even a limited education—*limited* in quantity, but good in quality—will add to a worker's value. Among many things the following may be specified:

He is more readily instructed in the duties of his work: more self-controlled, and needing less supervision. Being more intelligent, he works to better advantage and produces more in a given time. He is more industrious; less inclined to idleness and dissipation, and less liable to become a pauper or a dead-beat. He is less liable to join in strikes or engage in those excesses to which they sometimes lead.

If to the elements of a common-school education we add instruction in the elements of the moral, social, and political sciences, the valuable results are much increased. A laborer thus prepared is better able to avoid dangers which threaten himself or others; to detect and remove difficulties which cause expense and delay; to discover simpler and shorter methods of work, and thus to add to his power as a producer. A careful estimate, based on extensive inquiries, makes the gain in all these ways amount to from 25 to 1,000 per cent of the productive ability of a laborer who is entirely uneducated.

The relations of the common school to the working classes are very great, since nearly all laborers are educated in these schools. This being the case, it is obvious that, if the common-school studies and methods are especially adapted to any class of people, it ought to be to the working classes.

Our school work is not so well adapted to the wants of working people as it ought to be in the following, among other, particulars:

First—it is too bookish. The book is taught instead of the subject; words are taught instead of ideas; the relations of words are considered instead of the relations of thoughts or of things.

Second—Our courses contain too many things. The multitude of subjects studied preclude the formation of habits of continued work at a single thing.

Third—The studies pursued are too often dictated by fashion instead of being adopted from a consideration of their fitness. For working people who do not take an extended education, book-keeping is a much more useful study than algebra, yet the latter is studied by ten times as many people as the former—because it is the fashion.

Fourth—The metaphysical refinements of modern methods in many cases require children to follow, or attempt to follow, the course of their own mental operations in the attainment of intellectual arts, where the pupil is unable to comprehend the philosophy of the process, and in the attempt to do so fails to acquire the art. This becomes sometimes ludicrously obvious in the attempt of children to master the subtleties of some of the “logical solutions” given in some works on mental arithmetic.

Fifth—There is too much cultivation of the *knowing* powers to the exclusion of the *active*. A man's intellectual standing should be measured not by what he *knows*, but by what he can *do*. Knowledge is not power, but only a condition of the attainment of power.

Among the MEANS OF REFORM may be mentioned :

First—Concentrate the pupil's work on fewer subjects, and thus develop the power of continuous work.

Second—distinguish between knowledge and skill; and remember that skill can not be obtained but by practice.

Third—Test a pupil's advancement in the knowledge of an art by calling upon him to practice the art, rather than to tell how it ought to be done. For years many teachers have been, ostensibly, teaching grammar as the art of correct writing; but instead of testing the learner's knowledge by asking him to write, he was asked to analyze or parse, as though this was any certain test of his ability to write correctly.

Fourth—Separate the useful and necessary parts of arithmetic from those things which are only curious, or disciplinary (?), and teach the more important first, leaving such things as “casting out the nines,” “finding the true remainder,” “contractions,” “arbitration of exchange,” “circulates, or repetends,” &c., &c., for the high school or college.

Fifth—Composition must take the place now occupied by grammar, and the latter be carried forward to its true place in the curriculum of the college or high school.

Sixth—Penmanship should have regard principally to plainness, and rapid execution. Fancy flourishing may be considered “an extra.”

Seventh—The pupil should be made to feel that he has *mastered* some one thing. When a pupil feels that his studies are too many for him, he is in a bad way.

Eighth—He must recognize the fact that culture and discipline are not so much dependent upon *what* is taught, as upon *how* it is taught. The most perfect clearness and definiteness must be regarded as indispensable at all stages.

Ninth—Drawing, as a means of cultivating the perception and remembrance of forms and their relations, and of developing the power of exact and comprehensive observation, must be taught from the beginning of the school course. The pupil must learn to be as familiar with the *form* language as with the *word* language.

Tenth—Reading must be taught as a means of obtaining knowledge rather than of communicating it. Especial pains should be taken to cultivate the ability to read easily and understandingly; and, if possible, every pupil should be taught to love reading.

These changes and reforms, if carried out judiciously, would save a large part of the years now devoted to the study of the common branches, and leave time to teach the elements of the natural sciences and other things which every intelligent working man needs to know.

Such a change in our methods of instruction as is indicated would, it is thought, greatly improve them for the use of those who will ultimately engage in industrial pursuits, and not in the least interfere with the best progress of those who aspire to higher scientific or professional education.

DISCUSSION.

Dr. JOHN HANCOCK, of Ohio—We shall, most of us, probably agree as to the importance of technical instruction; but, as to the manner of imparting it, we shall some of us differ. I, for one, can not agree that technical instruction can ever be substituted in our schools for general instruction. I do not believe that we should have different schools for different occupations. The boy does not know what work he is going to do, and I am glad that he does not at that age. In other countries the boy does know, because he follows the occupation of his father. I may, perhaps, say of myself that I am an educator that labors, but when I went to school I could not see that I was going to be a teacher. I did what came, and I would have the American boy do whatever lies at hand, and I believe that the proper education is that which gives a man power to do this. If we give the pupil this to the best of our ability, we can not go far astray. I cannot agree to any crystallization into classes that would be likely to result from so early a determination of the occupation of the pupil. The son of the workman of to-day is the lawyer of to-morrow, and the son of the President of to-day may be the workman of to-morrow, and we can't specially fit either for his occupation, because we don't know what it will be. We should make general instruction the trunk of our educational tree, and let technical instruction grow out of it. For some the technical instruction should grow out nearer the root, and for others further away. I do not wish to be understood as opposed to technical instruction, but strongly in favor of that broad, generous instruction in the common schools that fits for all occupations.

Prof. THOMPSON—I claim that if the common schools are adapted to any one it should be to the working man rather than the professional.

Dr. HANCOCK—In answer to that I would say that the education that is the best for any man is best for the working man.

Mr. CHASE, of Louisville—I should like to know whether industrial education for girls has been discussed. It can not be denied that something is needed in that line. They go through the High School, and when they come out of it they feel themselves upon a different plane from their parents, and are discontented with their former surroundings, and yet have no means of supporting themselves in any other. Now,

should there not be some industrial occupation connected with their education? I must indorse what the President of the Association said this morning about the need of this thing. There is room for inquiry if we can not take up this matter and give something that will be more valuable than what we now give them.

PRES. J. D. RUNKLE, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology—In Brookline, near Boston, we have in all respects an excellent High School, yet this fact we cannot ignore: It leaves too many of its graduates without special connection with their future life. I believe that something can be done to remedy this defect—that we can formulate the industrial pursuits so as to teach them in our common schools even much better than grammar is now taught.

HON. J. P. WICKERSHAM, of Pennsylvania—I belong, perhaps, to another department, but I feel that these questions are among the most important that come before us at this meeting. We are certainly prepared for the higher technical schools. That is not questioned. But the President of the Association had in view this morning the question whether our common schools can not be turned more in this direction. I must agree with Mr. CHASE as to the need of this. I have seen large classes come out of our high school and go back home without a qualification for anything. We see the same fact in the demand for places involving light work like book-keeping. Our people are partly right in saying that the common schools are not doing what they should for the common people. It would *not* be a bad thing if half the time of the girls were taken up in learning sewing, telegraphy, wood-carving, and other arts of like nature. I believe that it is practicable that the work for girls may be divided in this way. With boys the case would be more difficult, but we find in Europe that they do the same with boys. I am not sure but that if half the money expended in the schools of our cities were expended in the erection of shops to teach the boys and girls trades it would be better.

DR. CHASE—I have a case in point—a fact. A woman of culture—a graduate of a high school—is now in the Alms-house of this city because she could do no kind of work—not even iron the simplest article of clothing. Thus she became a burden upon her friends. Now, I ask, *wouldn't* it have been better to have used part of the money expended in her education in teaching her to cook and to sew and to iron.

THE HON. W. D. HENKLE, of Ohio—That lady was foreordained to the alms-house. I want to offset that story. In the reports of HORACE MANN on Education in Massachusetts, it is shown that educated girls perform more work than those not educated. One of my sisters went into the kitchen quite early and learned to do housework. Another, younger, went through the high school first. The latter learned more housework in the five weeks before she was married than the other did in as many years.

DR. HANCOCK—We forget the fact that schools are not the only educational institutions. A girl can learn housekeeping better under her mother's direction than in the school, and the best place for a boy to learn farming is on his father's farm.

PROF. THOMPSON—It is not the *thing* taught alone, but the *spirit* in which

it is taught. Teachers do not hold out to boys the promise that they may become good mechanics and good farmers, but that they may become good lawyers, presidents, &c.

Hon. J. L. PICKARD, of Illinois—I can not believe that this looking for something higher is a bad thing. If the character is only right, there is no danger of producing a tramp or a beggar. If there were a little lifting up of the girls at home we should not hear this complaint about them. We want an elevation of feeling at home. I don't believe we are going to introduce the study of trades into our schools. Let us feel that it is character that we want, and that education is the building up of that character that shall make a man ashamed to do a mean thing. Among our idle men I don't find educated men. Employers turn off those first that are least valuable, and these are the ignorant ones.

Pending the discussion, Prof. ALEXANDER HOGG, of Texas, said that there was a singular inconsistency as to the teaching of the examples adduced; that he was in sympathy with all that had been said, but as to the *how* the reformation should be brought; that while there was much truth in what had been said, there was an indisposition, not to be denied, to perform manual labor; that this could be in a measure corrected—would be in time. But that the public schools are not responsible for it; that it would take time to bring into popularity industrial education; that personally he belonged to the laboring classes, and his *labor* for the future should be directed to dignifying and raising up the industrial classes.

The Chairman, Dr. J. R. BUCHANAN, remarked that as the discussion was completed he would present to the Department a petition (which he then read) from leading citizens of Louisville and who had been called the fathers of the common-school system of Kentucky, requesting the members of the Industrial Department to address the citizens of Louisville in reference to the best measures to be adopted by a city for the promotion of Industrial Education. This petition he considered already answered by the proposed discussion of the subject by the Association at a mass meeting of citizens. Regarding himself as the oldest and most radical friend of industrial education in the United States, he was delighted with the progress of the cause and had never heard in any assembly more of common sense, wisdom, and earnest eloquence than in the afternoon's proceedings.

He desired only to offer one suggestion of the many which the occasion prompted him to utter. Education should be a preparation for life and should be like the life to which it prepares. Life is labor—life is duty. Every noble life is pervaded by duty, and duty is embodied or realized only in labor for its end. This constitutes the solidity of character and the true greatness of life. An education which does not feel the hourly pressure of duty in the hourly performance of work, which is duty, is an unmanly education, as it does not qualify one for life—but enfeebles his character, by preparing him for literary inaction instead of manly achievement.

The life of the student must be pervaded by the strong impulse of duty driving to action—or to labor, and in that labor he comes into contact with the grand realities of life and develops that greatness or efficiency which comes from action alone.

Every noble life is a life of duty and *duty is synonymous with labor.*

The discussion having lasted till a late hour, Prof. FAIRCHILD's paper (the following) was not read but was ordered to be printed in the proceedings.

SYSTEMATIC MANUAL LABOR IN INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

MR. PRESIDENT, GENTLEMEN :

In undertaking to present views upon so practical a question as the place to be given to manual labor in industrial education, I think it but fair that you should know the standpoint from which those views are taken, and the incentive to offer them for your consideration.

For more than twelve years past I have occupied a chair in the Michigan State Agricultural College, where manual labor has been maintained from its very foundation, twenty years ago. In this relation, my position has been that of interested observation merely; but the interest has been heightened by direct responsibility during a year's absence of the president of the college, and by previous familiarity with details through duties as assistant Secretary. Farther than this my favorite studies of Morals and Political Economy have stimulated investigation in this direction.

But with all these advantages for seeing "most of the game," as the adage has it, I should not think fit to address you, but for the earnest, almost compulsory, solicitation of your worthy president, Prof. MANLY MILES. Under this pressure, I crowd already busy moments with these few thoughts and opinions.

In the outset, it seems necessary to point out a distinction, not always appreciated, between trained, or skilled labor, and educated labor. The former comes from a definite and narrow line of training within certain fixed rules. The more confined and perfect the routine the more perceptible is the skill developed, whether in manual or in mental effort. It is for this reason that in some of the arts we have skill as the most noticeable feature, while in agriculture, which is less capable of extreme division of labor, we scarcely take skill into account at all. The tendency is, to put rules first and principles second, as mere confirmation of the rules.

All this is well. It must ever be that children must walk and obey by rule before they can comprehend principles, and so growing industries of all kinds must be maintained by methodical routine and express rules, always before, and sometimes without, any general knowledge of broad principles, or any general discipline of mind and heart.

Whether a community can yet afford to reverse the process and put principles and discipline in their logical place, is a problem upon which economists are not likely to agree. The experiment has been tried by individuals with success, and in some trades the advantage of a liberal education before mastering details is granted. Perhaps it might be more obvious if it were not the usual effect of college life to turn attention away from technical and toward professional or mercantile pursuits. Very few find time or inclination to keep up habits of manual labor during a course of study, and very slight opportunity is offered anywhere for a symmetrical education of head and hands together. The result is that those students whose hearts remain in sympathy with the world's great work of bettering the condition of the race, seek their usefulness in superior knowledge of

what nature and the world have done; while the selfishly ambitious students seek their living and their fame by devotion to their wits. True wisdom is not likely to follow the sharpness of the latter culture at all, and can come to the former only through long association with the every-day work of the world. Of the few who do find wisdom, what a small proportion find exercise for it in practical affairs! Indeed a practical man is at once assumed to be of little culture outside of experience. Yet all educated men who meet the rest of the world in any practical questions, feel the want of discipline of mind among the men who wield the forces of production. The great questions of political economy and political liberty are studied by practical men with the same narrow energy that they give to their business. An obstacle to their particular aim seems an obstacle to the world's progress, and they seek for an expedient, just as they postpone financial embarrassment by borrowing from day to day. In their specialties they have knowledge and skill, and even wisdom, but the ability to use these for general welfare is very limited. Still further, with such sensible men, the educated sharper has a wonderful power. He attaches himself to their interests, catches their information, and uses his sophistry to make that appear a general truth, which is only a particular. So the very framework of society and civilization is fashioned to suit a few strong interests, while the truly wise and truly good must rank as only philanthropists and enthusiasts, and that for want of such a culture as enables them to hold firmly to the minuter interests of the toiling millions. The great benefactors of the race in every field of usefulness—spiritual, intellectual, or material—have been men whose sympathies with toil were kept fresh by circumstances, while a good degree of general culture was given by definite study. Names are needless here, where the history of religion, of popular education and invention are so familiar.

With this lengthy introduction then, I take it for granted, that the world needs, not merely more *skilled* laborers, but more *educated* laborers,—men who can master the details of a business, and still have a reserve of culture that shall help to mould the world's machinery to the world's wants. I assume, too, that our industrial schools, colleges, and universities are set for the task of furnishing such men for their work. To this end, I regard some system of manual labor essential, and estimate the value of any system by its adaptation to this grand purpose.

THE PARTICULAR OBJECTS sought in such a system are worthy of enumeration, as emphasizing its importance, and suggesting the methods best adapted to its ends.

I place first the encouragement of respect for manual labor. The young man who, while getting his education of brain and heart, has kept before him all the facts of honest toil, gains a respect for earnest workers, that comes in no other way so well. The energy, perseverance, devotion, and skill of the craftsman can be appreciated best by putting yourself, partially at least, in his place: and the actual drudgery of toil is known only as it is felt. Only actual work can bring a sympathetic understanding of the workman's needs, in either his business, his home, or his society: yet even a moderate experience with the quickened intelligence of student life enables one to hold fast his respect for any honest mode of toiling. This every student needs, whatever his tasks in life.

Second only to this is a preservation of such habits of body and mind as lead one not to shrink from labor of the hands himself. At the age when students attend college, habits of all kinds are to be formed for life; hence the need of so strict and regular a routine as everywhere prevails. If this routine prevents manual labor, one can seldom recover the habit in after life, however much it may be needed; but if room is made for this, it can seldom be utterly lost. The necessary muscular development too is provided for, and in the normal way, that cannot interfere with the lightest culture of brains.

Third in the scale, I place a cultivation of the sense of duty to be useful. To keep one in sympathy with the work of the world by his doing a part of it, is to help him to see how much there is to do and how important it is that his share be a real one. It diminishes the tendency to be a mere parasite of humanity in any capacity, and encourages to proper occupation.

Fourth, it should give such a general conversance with various practical affairs as to insure *gumption* in connection with learning. We all have heard complaint of educated idiots,—unable to use their learning to any practical advantage; and while we know that the complaint is in general ill-founded, there is enough of reason for it to damage our best defence of education for practical purposes. Now such familiarity with the details of any trade, or calling, as our system of labor can bring, develops a care for little things, that prevents such ridiculous lack of common sense as some very learned men have shown.

This, like the other, is a general object with a view to making education more useful in practical affairs, and more influential with practical men. There are others more specifically connected with industrial pursuits and education for them.

So we may place fifth, the giving of knowledge in applied science. Pure science depends largely upon illustration for fixing its principles and formulae, and a mere theory of applied chemistry or physiology or botany can scarcely be thought of. The illustrations are the main bulk of science in practice, while the rules are few and concise. Real illustrations are found only in the laboratory work of the student in which his task is to find the actions and reactions, and explain these according to principles already learned. We never think of giving a knowledge of arithmetic by showing the pupil the rule, and a sample solution or two, to illustrate it; he must work problems himself, till he can make them. How then can we expect any genuine knowledge of Agricultural Chemistry without any handling of the soil and seeds? How can one learn the principles of physiological Botany as applied in Horticulture, with no experimental efforts and successes? Agriculture and mechanic arts no one thinks of teaching, but by a series of experiments which make an apprenticeship. Any industrial education that is true to its name must give, in a labor system, some clear prominence to this need. Failing in this, it fails to put industries alongside with the sciences, as it professes to do, and even fails to give the sciences a place above machines for cultivating the memory, or gratifying curiosity. But, when the labor becomes a means of instruction, it is still to be a part of a general course of study, as broad as it

can be made and serve its purpose, as a means of discipline. To confine the labor to some one defined art, and then narrow the course of study to suit the illustrations, is the very opposite of education in any liberal sense, and can only develop skill. Our object is gained only when sufficient variety of labor is given to illustrate a general course of scientific study.

This leads to the sixth object; to encourage habits of observation in every part of human effort. We know that many a hardship in the life of laboring men exists only for want of thoughtful observation as to remedies: much of the waste of effort, so much deplored, arises from inattention to well-known principles. Now, the habit of laboring with the expectation of illustrating one's studies, does encourage thoughtful attention to minutiae: eyes and ears are quickened, and every intelligence is but in the right direction. Such a habit, once formed is not likely to be lost in after life. The details of a trade or a business are mastered sooner and better, while fitness for scientific observation in any field is secured earlier in life. The grand result must be a closer union between trained intelligence, and the manual labor of the world. Possibly, it might help to fill up the chasm which every now and then yawns between employers and employed.

In the above enumeration I have made no mention of the means afforded indigent students to help themselves through college, or of the manly independence encouraged by efforts of this kind. Both are incidental advantages in our system, but not the essential reasons for establishing such an institution, or for maintaining a system of manual labor. There might be less expensive means of gaining these ends. We ought, however, to take into account, so far as it operates, the attraction offered to laboring men who would not otherwise seek education. If a farmers' college raises the desire for education among farmers' sons, as we think it does, a system that promotes this desire is worth maintaining; and the same may be said in behalf of education for other industrial pursuits. Other incidental advantages, as those to the teacher, in the necessity for keeping apace with the rest of the world and for adaptation to practical wants, and the opportunity for direct usefulness which these give, I pass without notice, and hasten to the most noticeable

METHODS.

In general, I think, the labor must conform as nearly as possible to the character of genuine work, and the more fully students feel that what they are doing is real, not play-work, the better all the ends are served. I have noticed that the idea of permanency in any result, adds to interest and efficiency in the work itself. So I would have all the machinery of the system bear the impress of reality, and business-like methods of managing it. But it may be well to particularize also in methods.

First, let the work be actually connected with the world's great workshop by bringing its results to the same market. The idea of competition with others outside the every-day routine is a prominent means of success. Of course there must be waste and failures, and some of the work must be devoted to mere training; but let the kind of work be the same as the

world needs and is paying for. If there can be no market test applied, as in needed care and improvement of grounds, let especial pains be taken for comparison with similar work elsewhere, upon the basis of cost and accomplishment. Such a stimulant is a healthy one, and without it the interest flags for want of motive.

Second, I would put, a pecuniary interest in results on the part of each student, and take especial pains to adjust this as nearly as possible to actual accomplishment. This is a task of no small dimensions, but I doubt if the best results can be reached without it. So far as the labor results in education alone, it should earn nothing of course. To pay a man for the privilege of teaching him is out of the question. But if the first particular in methods is observed the great bulk of the work may give a return of value, that entitles those who do the work to wages. Any system that ignores this will have to be confined to such kinds of work as involve the nicer elements of taste or ingenuity, and border upon the domain of fine art. So the real ends of a labor system will be lost sight of.

Third, in my scale, stands responsibility for reputation. Labor, quite as much as study, invites distinctions, and such distinctions as the laws of wages cannot reach. A skilful overseer learns to make these, and to devise ways of making them serve as incentives. A judicious praise goes farther than money and a cautious reprimand often does better than "docking." The unconscious praise of public opinion, where it can be used, serves the purpose best of all. Such an adjustment of the labor, then, as makes repute of use, needs to be studied; but it operates just as elsewhere in the world.

Fourth, the sense of duty needs to be cultivated. Each student, from the time he matriculates, must be made to feel himself a part of the working force, whose absence at roll call interferes with the welfare of all. He must know that for certain hours of the day his services belong by agreement to the college, as much as if he were hired by the month or the year. Thus the certainty and regularity of the tasks take away half of the temptations to slight it. This involves on the part of the authorities a care to provide the necessary work to do,—a care among the most burdensome of all. And yet, so essential does this regularity of employment seem, that every effort should be made to compass it. If, after all, full employment cannot be had, a reduction of the number of hours per week is better than no method of adjustment.

Fifth, strict business rules as definite as possible should be enforced. This does not mean a despotic iron rule of law, that has no judgment and no soul: but certain settled principles should decide each of the manifold questions arising, after a fair hearing. "Circumstances alter cases" quite as much with students as with any human beings. So the most definite rules must have enough elasticity to show a sympathetic appreciation of a student's necessities.

Sixth, some systematic effort must adjust the line of labor to the line of study. Some of our greatest failures have come from want of such adjustment. If prominent illustrations of a study precede the study or follow it at too great interval of time, the loss can scarcely be compensated. The most vital relations of learning and labor rest on such adaptation and the atten-

tion which promotes it is well placed. Interest in both is essential to a proper understanding of these relations, and the most harmonious working of the two interests can come only through some organized union.

Seventh, we give stimulants to observation in societies for scientific culture and converse. Those who take a part in such societies are able to find in their daily tasks many a bit of information and many a question that stirs to pleasant enthusiasm. How much of good work may be thus accomplished depends upon the effectiveness of the previous method, and the inspiring influence of instructors.

This leads to the eighth particular which is, that much of the labor needs to be under the oversight of competent instructors, whose special science is thus illustrated. No other method seems to embrace so many of the essentials to successful work as this, since the Professor himself can devise, as no one else can, the means of illustration, and the incentives to best accomplishment. Of course, not all the oversight can be given by professors; much must be left to foremen, and even to older students. But the general outline of labor, the details of experiments, the more delicate manipulations, and the inspiring force of the whole, must come from the professors, themselves enthusiasts in their departments. This alone insures such unity of interest as the objects to be gained require.

I have set forth thus formally the objects to be sought, and methods found desirable here, because each has an importance of its own, and the general subject gains its importance from the sum of these minor interests. All are operative constantly, and the work goes on as each has proper attention from those in authority. Any untested theories, and all minutiae of detail, which must vary with different men and means, I have sought carefully to avoid.

But this record of observation must be far from complete without a glance at what are always more or less in the way of complete success,—

THE DIFFICULTIES.

In the beginning of any such system, and often throughout its progress, its smooth and efficient working is likely to be impeded by want of sufficient knowledge or skill on the part of instructors or foremen. Students are proverbially critical, and any weakness detected in their superior as to information or practical art, is bandied about among the crowd until it assumes extravagant proportions. The same difficulty is felt to a degree in ordinary teaching; but there the points of contact are fewer and the emergencies which expose weakness are less frequent, while the prestige of previous training is greater. When this is outgrown, as it will be to great extent in every individual case, there still remains often a lack of that directive energy without which knowledge and skill are of little avail with others. It often happens that the most skilful and the best informed in practical affairs are least able to instruct and persuade others in the same line of action. To such people it is always so much easier "to do it oneself," that only a keen enthusiasm for instructing others can help them to endure the bungling of a novice long enough to direct him.

So there is needed for such work a somewhat rare talent and accomplishment, which are seldom to be found in our country outside the pale

of active, independent business life. Very few, as yet, are led by philanthropy in this direction, and the salaries of such positions are seldom large enough to attract men of tact and experience. They must grow up with the system.

The students themselves furnish difficulties not slight. The very unwieldiness of large classes makes it impossible to distribute the work to the best effect, or to give the much needed oversight. They will allow their lessons sometimes to invade their labor in such a way as to interfere with attention and efficiency. Some interesting topic of the class-room may be allowed to prevent, instead of encourage, observation and energy.

Some, too, are constitutionally or habitually averse to toil, and so, not only fail themselves, but impede others. The gradually increasing prestige of the system makes it attractive to parents whose sons have been brought up in comparative idleness, without any stimulant of necessity. The more of such students there are the more difficult is the task of adjusting the system to its work. It is questioned how far industrial schools ought to be burdened with the task of reforming bad habits, just as it has always been questioned as to other schools. The difficulty is no greater I suppose, in training of this kind than in any other, but it is newer, and as yet is dealt with by less energetic methods. Usually instructors are tried no more by laziness in work hours than in study hours. Our effort has been to make good work and good scholarship stand on equal bases.

But the exigencies of a great institution having so many interests as a college, bring difficulties independent of human weaknesses. I have already hinted at the trouble it is to provide at all times such work, in proper quantities, as meets the demand. Every expedient has to be devised at times for the profitable occupation of all the students during certain definite hours of the day. Skilful planning avails much, but a residuum of friction is to be expected from this source after the best of effort. On the contrary, at other seasons business is pressing, and haste precludes usual care for methods that are essential to instruction. Often it seems necessary to ignore for a time the educational basis and put the best man where he can *do* the most, rather than get most good. Only constant close attention to this danger can prevent its interference with vital elements in the system.

Between the different departments of education there may be such competition as seriously to mar the work that is meant to illustrate all. The work system is intended to combine, as in real life, the illustrations of many sciences. In ordinary college routine, departments of instruction are slightly dependent upon each other for concessions or favors; here they are much more so, and no court of arbitration is able to adjust without some friction and loss of enthusiasm. A patient forbearance needs to be cultivated on all sides and kept in constant use.

Finally this, like all practical education is costly,—how costly, it is difficult to tell. For such instruction there must be a larger corps of instructors, and assistants, and those of no inferior order; a more certain multiplication of buildings, tools, and means of illustration in proportion to numbers; and much more machinery of accounts, records, reports, and plans, than any simply literary college has need of. But very much the

same thing is true of any scientific school, and more even, of schools of arts. From some careful estimate based upon expenditures at the Michigan Agricultural College, I judge that such education costs no more in proportion to the time given to it than any thoroughly scientific training. Its cost is overestimated, because a part of it is found in just such kinds of employment as are usually engaged in for the profit of the business, and we have not yet learned to separate the act of learning from performing, as we have in keeping accounts.

The real test of costliness is in the results. If this system develops more than ordinary power to cope with the world's forces, and is building up a bond of union between learning and labor, that elevates the one and renders more useful the other, its cost is but the profitable investment that civilization makes for its own promotion.

Thus twenty years of experience have settled to many minds the possibility of manual labor as the part of the college curriculum, and some general principles as to its proper objects and methods; there yet remain many differences of opinion as to the grandeur of the results. It is to be hoped that, as difficulty after difficulty is met and overcome, the world will accept this among the many settled means of true culture.

In very hastily transcribing these well-settled opinions, I have had very little opportunity for consulting any of my colleagues upon the subject. I think, however, that the views here presented do not misrepresent the largely prevailing sentiment among officers, alumni, and students. They are submitted for your consideration with the hope that they may be still further sifted, till only the finest of the wheat shall remain.

The Department then adjourned.

Second Day's Proceedings.

WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 15, 1877.

The Department was called to order by the Chairman *pro tempore*, Dr. BUCHANAN. The first business attended to was the appointment of the Committee on Nomination of Officers, which was overlooked the day before. L. S. THOMPSON, S. R. THOMPSON, and S. H. WHITE, were appointed the committee.

President J. D. RUNKLE, spoke extemporaneously on

THE RUSSIAN SYSTEM OF MECHANICAL ART EDUCATION, AS APPLIED IN THE MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY.

[It is regretted that this excellent address illustrated by charts and specimens of students' mechanical work cannot be reproduced. The following meagre report is taken from the Louisville *Courier-Journal* and the Secretary's notes].

President J. D. RUNKLE was then introduced to the meeting, and began

his remarks given as follows with as much fulness as possible from notes taken during their delivery :

Some of you may have noticed the Russian exhibit of technical education at the Centennial last year. For eight years I had been seeking a solution of the question of manual education, and my mind was therefore in a very receptive state for such ideas. At the Massachusetts Institute of Technology we had made the theoretical part of technical education as complete as was possible. We had sent out men well educated in their professions, but in one sense with their hands tied—men designed to be the directors of construction shops, who possessed absolutely nothing of the manual skill required in such construction. We found that the most successful of these engineers were those that went into the shop after leaving the Institute and learned the trade. But for these men to place themselves on a level with apprentices at that stage required great decision of character, such as few possessed. It might be said that they should serve their apprenticeship before going to the Institute. Now there are three periods, in one of which they must do it, if they do it at all—before going to the technical school, while there, or after they leave it. I believe the true place is in the school while pursuing their studies—that the manual instruction part *can* and *should* be put into the school course. Not one in twenty-five of those who go into apprenticeship with the idea of going to school afterwards ever go back to the school. Now, if it is possible for a man to get skill of hand without teaching, as he does by apprenticeship, then we as educators ought never to admit that we cannot teach it in the school.

It may be asked what distinguishes the Russian system? It is this: *trades* are built upon *art*. Art is fundamental. There are certain general practices underlying construction that we may call arts. Now we may teach these arts with or without teaching the constructions depending upon them. When we teach them without the constructions we abandon the idea of the artisan; we abandon the idea of manufactures. Now the Russian system does this, and teaches the arts just as we teach chemistry, in a laboratory: but previous to 1868 the School of Technology at Moscow followed the apprenticeship system, in which the student learned the art only through the trade.

The following diagram, exhibited during the lecture, shows how vise-work, as an *art*, underlies several familiar *trades*. The second diagram shows some of the natural divisions of vise-work.

Vise-work is important to the workers named below :

Blacksmith,	Die Sinker,
Tool Maker,	Machinist,
Gunsmith,	Boss-Finisher,
Iron Mold Maker,	Jeweller,
Philosophical, Nautical, and	
Musical Instrument Makers, &c.	

Vise-work divides into

Filing,	Sawing,
Tapping,	Chipping,
Reaming,	Thread-cutting,
Breast Drilling, &c.	

In adopting the Russian system at our Institute we fixed upon vise-work for our first laboratory. We then decided to teach 32 students at a time at 32 benches with 32 vises, just as we teach analytical chemistry in a laboratory. The next thing was to obtain a man who had the requisite skill and then the capacity to work himself over according to these ideas. This was a matter of difficulty, for each would almost invariably ask what trade he was wanted to teach. When the right man was found the idea was developed in his mind by asking him what trades he was master of, and could teach; and when these were all named he was asked what fundamental manual skill was most essential in them all. In this case vise-work was decided upon. The next thing to be decided upon was the tools, and in our case tools for filing and chipping were selected.

(A case containing these tools used at the Institute was on exhibition during the afternoon. They consisted of a variety of files, chisels, callipers, saw, and hammer).

The next thing we wanted was a series of designs, the working out of which was best calculated to teach the use of these tools.

(A set of these designs was exhibited upon the walls of the room. There were also upon the table a set of drawings of these designs, made by the student himself. These drawings were soiled and blackened, and had actually been used by a student in working out the designs in metal. A case containing completed products corresponding to these drawings, and for each product the corresponding blank from which it was made, was also on exhibition, and the object of much interest. This case contained the actual work of one student during thirty lessons of four hours each, and comprised the following objects with their corresponding blanks:

In filing to line, all cast iron:

Flat surface,	Octagon,
Wedge,	Square hole,
Oval hole.	

In free-hand filing, bench vise, cast iron:

Check work,	Ring work.
-------------	------------

In free-hand filing, hand vise, steel wire:

Point,	Rifle sight,
Screw blank,	Screw.

In filing, cast iron:

Fitting.

In filing, fitting, steel:

Rectangular slide,	Dove-tail slide.
--------------------	------------------

In chipping with flat chisel:

Half cylinder of wrought iron,
Chamfered surface of cast iron,
Reversed curved surface of cast iron.

In chipping with half round chisel:

Half round chamfer in wrought iron,
Fluting in steel,
Spline work in steel.

In sawing, &c.:

Sawing in cast iron,

Sawing and chipping in wrought iron,

Sawing and filing to template in wrought iron.

There was also on exhibition a case containing the products of fifteen lessons of four hours each in forge work, but we can not enumerate them.

Now the method is this: The student makes the drawing of the design, and in so doing gets a vivid idea of the shape or form required, and some idea of how to produce that form. The teacher asks for this idea, and nothing is done until the method is clear in the mind of the student. An analysis of the work to be done is placed upon the blackboard and a certain value assigned to each element. The student notes this analysis and goes to work. The student thus knows himself just how much each point perfectly done will count in the inspection, and by aid of the analysis he is generally able to predict the quality of his own work within five per cent. In the laboratory thirty-two students are doing the same piece of work at the same time. Thus, the teacher has his own attention concentrated upon one point, and is able to oversee a large number of workers.

The remaining remarks were mainly disconnected statements, made in answer to questions. The following is their substance:

At first we gave to the student five hours to do what a workman would do in one. At the close we gave him two hours for it.

Not a man out of fifty-two students failed in this work, although marked in it more rigorously than in other studies, and in only one case was a student obliged to do the same piece a second time. There was no stumbling of the student, because the teacher was always present and always watching.

It was the most astounding educational product that I have ever seen. Have questioned practical mechanics who have come to the Institute, as to how the work compared with that of apprentices, and have invariably received the answer that it was far superior. Have asked them how it compared with the work of journeymen, and they have replied that they would choose a majority of our students in preference to a large proportion of the journeymen in their employ. They are astonished when told the time in which the work was learned and performed, and will hardly believe it.

The work of 28 of the 52 students was worthy of public presentation. I think the method can be applied in any school and to any pupils who are physically able to do the work.

[The speaker here described an experiment in the city of Boston in which the method had been tried with very elementary students with very satisfactory results. He also distributed pamphlets containing an account of this experiment.]

In the Institute of Technology this work was done in addition to the regular studies, and I have yet to hear that it was done to the prejudice of their standing in those studies. As to the cost of this instruction, by

having four drawers and four sets of tools to each bench we can put 128 students through this course in ten weeks. This will work our laboratory six days in the week and eight hours per day. In a year of fifty weeks we could put through five times as many, or 640 students in one year. Now for expenses. The rooms we had; it cost first about \$1,000 to fit up the rooms with benches, vises, and tools, each set costing \$5.60. We paid our teacher \$100 per month. I consider it feasible to have a high school with a shop of this kind that will not cost much more than it does now. Would put the pupil through one school at a time, as vise-work; then forge-work; then wood-work, &c. Would make these schools so educational in their character, that whether the student ever used the skill or not, the schools would be justified as an educational feature.

All begin the same piece of work at the same time, and when it is finished, the pupil passes it in.

We don't make salable articles because such are not the best to make for educational purposes. When the pupil makes an article that is fit to sell, it is not best, in an educational view, that he should make another of the same kind. The expense, too, is far less when articles are not made to sell.

The audience was large during these remarks, and manifested unusual interest in them. Several others made remarks as follows:

MR. HENKLE, of Ohio:—I believe this is the solution of a very difficult question. A boy can thus get several years of schooling and the basis of a trade at the same time. I have heard nothing so suggestive since the first meeting of the General Association twenty years ago.

A gentleman remarked that something of this kind had been in operation at Washington University for three years.

Prof. SOLDAN, of St. Louis:—There is a school in Leipsic which is private, but the pupils work from the beginning to the end of the course, the presumption being that students thus educated are better fitted for the general purposes of life.

Mr. SMART, of Indiana:—As to the practicability of this system, I know of a shop where there are fifteen apprentices. They are employed in carrying water, running errands, &c., but not in learning the trade. This is the usual way. I asked the director of this shop in what time he could teach all these boys learned in their apprenticeship of three years? He replied that he could do it in six months.

Prof. H. W. GRUBE, of Louisville, submitted questions of difficulty in the carrying out and advisability of establishing such shops. He considered that there would be danger of over-production if this Boston Industrial School alone could turn out 500 finished mechanics in one year; as that would make 15,000 in one generation. Now as one gentleman had suggested that such an Industrial School could readily be attached to any school system in any city of over 10,000 inhabitants, that very soon there would be such an amount of young men able to practice these trades as to overcrowd the market. They would then be obliged to shift around or go into the professions for lack of work. He furthermore took the ground that the interest that was taken in industrial education was caused by the opinion that the public-school system so far had turned out to be in-

adequate to the wants of the age and country; the prevalent belief was that there was a dislike of work among the youth and rush for genteel occupations; he could not see how these schools would remedy the evil, as there were plenty of mechanics who could not find employment; he knew of some skilled mechanics who had not found work for years; he knew graduates in high honors of the Stevens Institute Works who could find no market for their education; he feared the sum total of human happiness would not be increased, unless the industrial schools were established very cautiously on a limited scale, and would do no good, unless they produced more *skilled* workmen than we have now, and on the supposition that there was need of more skill.

Dr. HANCOCK, of Ohio:—The difficulty presented is one we shall not solve here, but we may begin the solution. I heartily sympathize with the effort to give more knowledge and thus more power to our young men and women. How to do this is the question we are now solving.

Prof. THOMPSON, of Nebraska:—It has been difficult to teach manual skill to students because of the hostility of journeymen of the same trade. The University of Nebraska attempted to run a printing-office in charge of a journeyman printer, but the moment he put upon the market work done by students the Printers' Union remonstrated, and rather than be expelled he chose to give up his position.

Dr. RUNKLE:—Such difficulty does not pertain to the Russian system. A charitable mechanics' association in Boston, when made acquainted with its objects and methods, offered the use of a large sum of money for carrying the system into operation.

Dr. BUCHANAN, of Louisville:—It is impossible for us to overrate the importance of industrial education as now developed. It has been thoroughly established by experience that education in the arts, and even a considerable amount of useful labor at the same time may proceed successfully in the entire course of education without interfering with the broadest and deepest mental culture that is possible. Certainly, then, there can be no difficulty in incorporating into every system of liberal education that thorough training in artistic skill proposed by Prof. RUNKLE, and even a special training in various practical arts by which each pupil may earn his subsistence or win his way to wealth.

The pupils of the Ohio State Reform School who give half their time to study and half to useful labor on the farm have made as good progress during many years as the pupils of the common schools who do no labor. So far from industrial culture interfering with intellectual culture, it really lends to it a powerful support by strengthening the character and developing the moral energies. It is upon these moral energies that the entire value of human character depends. The intellect itself cannot attain a manly development without the development of a manly character.

While industrial education thus becomes an assistant to intellectual growth and mental discipline, it is destined to revolutionize the world in its social condition, and that revolution is now beginning. It will certainly double the productive power of more than a million of laborers. If it makes these laborers (now worth a dollar a day) worth two or three dollars it will do more to elevate our population in the social scale, increase the

general prosperity, and terminate the conflict of capital and labor than any agency now in the field of progress.

Moreover, it will elevate the mechanic arts to an extent not dreamed of at present. The medical profession would be in a degraded condition, indeed, if it were acquired only by nursing the sick under a physician without schools, literature, or instruction. The mechanic arts acquired only by apprenticeship, without any thorough intellectual teaching, are in that degraded condition to-day, and industrial education will do more than books and colleges have done for the professions. It will elevate their social status, increase their productive power, and give us a new industrial world.

At the close of President RUNKLE's address and the animated discussion that followed, Professor PHELPS, of Wisconsin, offered the following resolution:

Resolved, That the hearty thanks of this Department be, and they hereby are, tendered to President RUNKLE, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, for the able, practical, and satisfactory presentation of the methods of instruction in industrial art now so successfully in operation in that institution.

Professor Phelps warmly supported the resolution, remarking that the lecture of President RUNKLE had come as a new revelation to many earnest educators present, who had been anxiously grappling with the problem of industrial education, and who now felt that in the plans so admirably presented they could see light ahead. For his part he felt that no subject that had been brought before the Association for years would prove more fruitful in beneficent results to the great question of the hour than this. The resolution was adopted by a rising and unanimous vote.

Dr. RUNKLE thanked the meeting for its kind expression of interest.

The interesting discussion lasted too late to permit the reading of the following paper by Prof. CHAS. O. THOMPSON, and it was ordered to be printed in the Proceedings.

THE RELATION OF MANUAL LABOR TO TECHNOLOGICAL TRAINING.

The modern teacher is characterized by the prominence he gives to manipulation. By it, he fixes impressions and corrects judgments. He hails object-teaching and welcomes FROEBEL. When art is the subject-matter of teaching, he somewhat depreciates the anatomists and holds analytical study of art as inartistic. He will work *down*, in figure-drawing, from the outward and palpable, and find the bones. He requires the pupil in language to know the phrase, in which a Greek for instance would express his thought and then to divine the secret of its beauty. Idioms of his own tongue he must persistently turn into idiomatic Greek. After this, he may study philology if he will.

This teacher will have geometry applied to the solution of such problems as will disclose its uses in determining the relations of matter, forces, and space; so that it shall not evaporate in the dry air of pure thought. His treatment of the inductive sciences is calculated to lead his pupil along the path of the pioneers, not for repeating, in an automaton way,

their steps, but for adding a knowledge of their methods to the treasures they disclosed. Blackboards, telescopes, and test-tubes, are indispensable to the success of the modern plan for teaching youth "those things they will practice when they become men."

It accords with this thought that the workshop should have a place in the mechanics' school. The isolation of the workshop from the school is as unnatural as any other feature which makes the complete separation, in this day, of the artist from the artisan. They once thought with the same brain and wrought with the same fingers. Art and mechanics have suffered by the change, as common facts attest. Men like to fashion their commonest utensils nowadays after those ancient models wrought by the artist-artisans; and the spirit of the Greek rests like a benediction from a departed friend upon all impressive modern art.

The condition of the mechanic-arts, men are everywhere trying to improve. In all cities where manufactures abound, evening schools, libraries, and lectures, attract the mechanic, and many technological schools undertake to equip youth more amply for the practice of the industrial arts. These efforts all proceed from a recognition, more or less explicit, that apprentices must be better educated, but they are always tempered by an equally strong desire that they shall be so educated as not to lose their relish for handicraft. Boys must be fitted for an intelligent application of science to the industrial arts without being unfitted for the practice of those arts. Three elements enter into this much desired training—*Handicraft, Technical Education, and Culture.*

The best palpable evidence that a demand for such a training of youth exists among practical engineers is furnished by the Report of Discussions on Technical Education, which were held at the hall of the Franklin Institute, in Philadelphia, June 19, 1876,* by a joint meeting of the Institutes of Mining and of Civil Engineers. Probably a more thoroughly representative body of men were never assembled. The thoughts of leading members were presented in writing, and the reading of these papers was followed by animated and thoughtful discussions. In this discussion the three parts of an engineer's training—handicraft, technics, and culture—were clearly recognized and the third emphasized. By the term *Engineers* is meant all persons who intelligently apply the arts of production and of construction to the business of turning the forces of nature to the advantage of man.

There was no diversity of opinion as to the *importance* of these Elements, but in regard to their relative position different views were held. These are some of the questions to be settled on the pedagogical side:

Shall *handicraft* precede the technical school, mix in it, or follow it?

1. Shall *culture*, in the sense of studies calculated to impart general knowledge and develop taste and judgment, precede the technical school or follow it? 2. Shall the technical school be strictly professional or partly that and partly a school of general culture? 3. What shall the technical school require for admission and for graduation?

*Published by Am. Inst. Mining Engineers. Dr. T. M. Drowne, Sec., Easton, Pa.

Shall the shops for handicraft be distinct, or shall students expect to practice in the existing workshops of large manufacturing establishments?

The limits of this paper forbid discussing the general questions here stated. I may perhaps be permitted to refer to a paper in the volume of *Transactions of the American Institute of Instruction for 1876*, for a discussion of the Place of the Polytechnic School in American Education. This and the important pamphlet just described give some account of the present state of the question.

In this paper I propose to state the theory adopted and so far worked out at the Worcester School, acting under the president's suggestion that the Association will be glad to hear the plan and results even of an unfinished experiment. The Worcester Free Institute was opened in November 1868, with a full knowledge of the plan and purpose of the only similar European experiments, and cotemporary with the Moscow School. This Russian plan was fully explicated at the *Vienna exposition*, and all its merits carefully noted.

The cardinal principle adopted at Worcester is that *manipulation* should mix with school-work, and that culture, in the special sense, should precede or follow it—the *school-work* being strictly technical or professional.

The Institute proposes to educate engineers by a path which leads *through* the workshop rather than around it, and to give all the essentials of an engineer's training in a course of three and a half years for beginners and three years for those who have had some shop practice. This plan is laid in the belief that a large amount of collateral knowledge—in itself very desirable—must be obtained before entering the school or after leaving it. It is believed that a technical school should do its legitimate work in the most thorough manner—*Pauca fideliter* is the legend of the seal—Legitimate work thoroughly done is the source of prosperity in any school. To correct a possible wrong impression, it is necessary to state that the graduates of the Worcester School are not expected to confess any inferiority in preparation for engineering to graduates of cognate institutions, and that among candidates for admission are found boys fitted for college and graduates of college.

Nine years of trial have confirmed the officers of the Institute in their belief in the soundness of the plan.

The attempt to combine manual labor with school-work—or in other words, practice with theory—in the education of engineers is justified by the nature and effect of manipulation. The best account ever given of the usefulness of manipulation is contained in Professor F. A. March's commencement address at Worcester in 1876, and I cannot do better than to state his leading propositions.

"The school-boy who repeats a passage from WEBSTER or BACON, does not necessarily repeat in his own mind the thought of WEBSTER or BACON. One of BACON's essays has been read by a school-boy as a composition of his own. The lad did not see anything in it which he could not have written himself. Manipulation is the natural means of arresting this sublimation of the mind. It should be further remarked of the nature of language, that it lags far behind the progress of thought. The innumera-

ble judgments on which sagacity depends, are comparatively few of them expressed in the formal speech of artificial signs. The old furnaceman tells from the look of the bubbles when the charge of steel is becoming ready; but he has no name for that look. The engineer puts down brakes at a peculiar noise in the engine, as instinctively as the eyelids close when a fly approaches; but he has no name for the noise. A thousand nameless, wordless judgments of relations between objects and acts are all the time going on in the mind of the sagacious man. All processes of reasoning need signs, but original thinking and practical sagacity demand the use of primary signs, in place of the secondary signs of language. Manipulation is necessary to make up the shortcomings of speech.

"Its most general use is to keep the mind awake and alert. Lectures are apt to go in one ear and out at the other. The printed page passes before the eye like a shadow. We set ourselves to think, but we brood. To study without pen in hand, is to dream. In manipulation, thought passes into act. We use our hands and eyes, we are kept busy adjusting and controlling material objects.

"The manipulator stores his mind with conceptions of the senses, with information from the eyes, ears, nose, the finger-tips, the muscles, and the meters of science, those magnified senses; without these firm roots, men are poor sapless things.

"Manipulation trains the organs of perception: the eye of *HERSCHEL*, the thumb of *PHIDIAS*. Chemistry, botany, mechanics, afford the most effectual gymnastic of manipulation. *SIR GARETTE* is a goodly figure in the *Morte d' Arthur*, in that he has 'the fairest and the largest hand that ever man saw,' and some one has characterized the Anglo-Saxons as the race with more nerves in their hands than there are in the heads of any other race.

"It gives clear and distinct ideas. The complex ideas of modern science, to which the technical terms must guide us, are the result, for the most part, of wide generalization. They are obscure and indefinite to every man until he has often applied them to real objects.

"This process of minute attention and verification strengthens the memory. Once worked-out is faster in mind than ten-times learned. The affections of the senses redouble the inner memory. The recurrent force of muscular and nervous habits is added. A long verbal description often, in fact, belongs to a movement that is comprehended in a single stroke of the eye, or other brief experience, which the memory holds without effort.

"But a greater advantage of manipulation is that it trains the judgment. The reduction of theory to practice cannot be an exercise of mere memory.

"And finally, the manipulator is in training to become an inventor and discoverer."

Other uses of manipulation will be suggested by some points in the following paragraphs:

It is important to discriminate between handicraft itself and its relation to engineering. Some speak as if handicraft and engineering were identical. It is easy to see that the ability to fit a geared wheel, to produce a

true plane surface, or to make a correct pattern with core-box, is something quite distinct from the ability to decide upon the best form and material, and the strength of the machinery for a specified work. In fact one ought to presuppose the other. The craftsman may be very skilful but not be an engineer. The engineer may be very learned and not be a craftsman. When this is their relation, the craftsman often laughs to scorn the engineer's learning. But if the engineer be first a craftsman—though not eminently skilful—he knows how to economize his own learning and also that of the unlearned craftsman as well. The undexterous engineer is liable to dream—the uneducated craftsman will mistake the rise and fall of the ship hove-to for onward voyaging.

What shall the practice of the student be in order to give him the requisite skill in handicraft. It would seem to be plain that this practice should consist of those forms of handicraft which constitute the possessions of a skilled mechanic. But it is equally important that the student should subject all products of machinery or of tools to the well-known principles of the science of mechanics. In other words, he must learn to make and fit the parts of the machine which he designs.

Suppose the student to be a beginner he works seven hours a day from February 1 to July 1, in wood-working. For the three following years he works ten hours a week—and in the month of July ten hours a day—in a carefully analyzed course of iron-work. He graduates early in July, so that the time devoted to practice amounts to 900 hours in the preliminary half year and an average of 500 hours a year for the three following years of the course. In this course the student practices filing, forging, planing, lathe-work, the use of the milling machine, &c., and is exercised in the fitting and finishing of machinery. These parts of his practice must be determined not by a priori consideration but by a careful knowledge of the demands which the actual practice of the best shops will make upon him. The capital fact must be constantly in mind that *machinery* does and is to do the largest part of the shaping of matter into useful forms and man must be either its servant or its master.

The shop is equipped like any first-rate shop with power, tools, and men. The men, selected for their skill, character, and aptness to teach, serve as instructors to the students when needed for that work. At other times they serve as regular journeymen. When business presses, some men may be employed to serve wholly as journeymen. The shop therefore is organized as if for manufacturing and adapts itself to the school only so far as to modify its plans so as to give proper variety of work—and to receive the students—an *important* modification but not revolutionary.

An important auxiliary to this direct mechanical practice is free-hand drawing. Ten hours a week may be given to it for the preliminary half-year—or, as we call it, the apprentice class—six hours a week for Junior year and two Middle year. The discipline of the sense of form and proportion which is thus acquired is very helpful to mechanics—and increases the efficiency of shop-instruction.

The principles which, it is believed, should govern practice in technical education, are these:

- 1st. It should form a constituent part of every week's work throughout the course.

2d. It should be done in the atmosphere of real business but free from the influence of the employer's self-interest.

3d. The student should not expect or receive any pecuniary return for his labor.

First. *Practice should form a part of every week's work.*

This proposition rests on strong grounds.

1. If a boy learns handicraft in his engineering course, he discerns its true relations, step by step, to other parts of this course. The school inspires its intelligence into the work of the shop, and the shop with eyes open to the improvement of productive industries prevents all shortness of vision and monastic dreams which sometimes neutralize the product of the school. It is always undesirable to put off to adult years the mastery of elementary knowledge. The man does the boy's work by a forced process. He does by compulsion what the boy does freely and of course—Handicraft finds the same advantage in fellowship that is accorded to other kinds of knowledge. It gains that advantage without intrusion into fields foreign to itself. Patiently and judiciously managed it is altogether helpful.

2. The parallel study of science and handicraft gives labor its real dignity. This argument from the moral effect is a very strong one. Grime is less dreaded than ignorant pretense by a mechanic whose brain and hand have been educated under the same roof.

3. A great economy of time is possible by this arrangement. For practice serves the double purpose of discipline and of physical exercise. Students of limited pecuniary resources are not unwilling to turn play time into mechanical practice when they can, by this means, save time. They make the school-day average $9\frac{1}{2}$ hours, the week $5\frac{1}{2}$ days, the year 42 weeks—The result is that a three years' course of 126 weeks is found not inferior in any important respect to a four years' course of 128 weeks—which is the division of time in many technological schools. It makes just this difference with a student's expenses whether his course is three years or four, that if the cost is four hundred dollars a year and the graduate's savings in his first year are one hundred dollars, his fourth year in school costs him five hundred dollars. This sum—\$500—expresses the true difference then between the cost of a three years' course and one of four years. A greater economy is the advantage of acquiring a knowledge of handicraft with educated faculties. For it is a form of knowledge.

It is sometimes claimed that intelligence is not an indispensable condition of skill in handicraft. I remember a file-cutter who was pointed out in a shop as a man without a superior in this country in his trade, but so ignorant as to be almost an object of pity. So I have also seen a lake of molten iron covered with a rough crust of slag and through one small vent the fiery metal escaped. The argument proves too much, though it carries a part of the truth. It is not the object of the school-shop to produce great skill in filing, forging, and planing, but to supply the essential conditions of future skill in any direction which the student may choose to take.

4. Another reason for not making handicraft an appendix to the course

is found in the fact that school-life for most youth is over at the age of twenty-two. Practically, few would stop to learn the practical use of tools and machinery after leaving school, if they could earn a livelihood by any use of what they had already acquired. Many things admitted to be desirable, and even necessary in a certain sense, are let go. Every experienced educator knows the difficulties that beset his way when he tries to hold young graduates to a course of advanced or expanded study. The number of resident graduates, or of advanced students, in any university catalogue is conclusive though melancholy evidence of the haste of our youth to begin independent living. The argument for a three years' course is based upon the practical necessity of turning the brief period of school-life to the utmost account, especially for that large number of boys whose resources will not justify a longer course however good their intentions and desires.

5. But a much stronger reason for teaching handicraft in connection with the school is that the period of sharp acquisition lies between the ages of sixteen and twenty-two. The first sixteen years of life ought to be devoted to general culture. Disregarding the exceptional cases of men who have been compelled by circumstances to defer unusually late the desired education, it is true of the greater number of youth, in a regular course of education, that the part of their training which lies just back of their majority is that which gives tone and direction to all their future lives. Whatever mixes with the discipline of those plastic years enters into the life and character of the man in a more intimate and organic sense than the contributions of maturer years. If handicraft follows the school, it must hold a secondary and inferior place—must form an appendix to the main work, and cannot receive the attention its importance deserves. If it is an element of the course of an engineer's training and not an unimportant accessory, it must enter it on an equal footing with other elements. It follows that instruction in handicraft must be controlled and directed by the same authority and skill that direct the whole institution. One reason for the failure of all the Manual Labor Schools which arose between 1830 and 1840 at Oneida, Oberlin, Suffield, East Windsor, and elsewhere, was that the labor was voluntary in every case and subordinated as an inferior means to a higher end. It was not directed by any pedagogical thought but was introduced as a method of bread-winning by which indigent students might be enabled to secure a classical education. A caste was thus created which of itself was a fatal objection. And the students viewing it as something from which the school enables men to escape as a direful ill, made their escape as soon as possible. The work degenerated into play and the whole system fell into contempt. The handicraft in school was isolated from the student's post-graduate life.

II. To make handicraft effective and serviceable, it should be done in the atmosphere of real business but free from the influence of the employer's self-interest.

The shop is a manufacturing establishment, equipped with the best possible tools, and directed by a superintendent who is an educated mechanic. He employs a number of skilled workmen, large enough to carry on the

manufactures and to instruct the students. Whatever the shop produces, which is really salable, is sold. The students are therefore held to a strict business account from the beginning to the end of their course. It makes a great difference whether a boy is taught to cut an iron screw as an exercise which involves no other consequences than any other lesson learned well or ill, or whether he feels that the screw is to be part of a machine and that, upon his own care and fidelity, important interests depend. He is in training for the life of a mechanic and the closer his training lies to the emergencies of that life, the better. No element of a mechanic's training is omitted. The course is carefully analyzed. But the novice does his filing, planing, sawing, milling, &c., under the wholesome tonic of the business consequences of errors. Whatever he proposes to make, he must first exhibit in plan with a calculation of all dimensions, and before he graduates he makes a set of working drawings of some machine, which is manufactured, under his eye, in the shop. Each student advances in the complexity and difficulty of his work as fast as possible, unhindered by sluggish classmates and disentangled from all pecuniary interests of the shop in his work. It is true that much students' work is sold. Every graduate is able to do good work. But the dominant thought of the school is to make him as good a workman as possible without regarding the value of the return he makes in material products. Of course the salaries of all the officers of the shop are independent of its earnings. The facts on the business side of the shop are these:

The annual salable product is about \$17,000. This is sold and no serious losses have been incurred. The profits on this product fall short by \$3,000, of meeting the actual expenses of the shop. The deficit is charged to the cost of educating the students and is paid from the income of a fund provided for that purpose. It may be interesting to add that the shop has never been idle for lack of business, has never carried a cumbrous or entangling amount of unsold products, has never failed to receive first premiums for work exhibited at great competitive Fairs, and the deficit between profits on sales and cost of administration is gradually diminishing.

Two objections have been raised against this plan:

I. It is said that youth in training for engineers, require a greater variety of work than can be afforded in a single shop devoted to manufactures.

In reply it may be said that the range of manufactures may be varied so as to afford sufficient variety. Too great variety is a snare rather than a help. The object of the shop is not to acquaint a student in three years with the literature of mechanism. A mechanical cabinet is the place for that. But the shop does better to give a thorough working knowledge of the fundamental processes of mechanism as found in all manufacturing machine-shops.

This purpose sharply defined and faithfully carried out fits into the general structure of the mechanic's training and goes to produce hands able to execute what the brain suggests.

It is also objected that to regard business restraints in a school is an unworthy motive and must tend to narrow its scope. There is such a thing as breadth without depth.

So long as all wealth arises from labor, it will be true that all teaching of handicraft which dissociates it from its producing power is misdirected. Other things being equal, that country which commands the most energetic and intelligent labor produces most for a given expenditure of labor. It is therefore desirable that craftsmen should know how to economize labor and give it the utmost efficiency. It savors of affectation to attempt to teach handicraft and not look its relation to value squarely in the face. To spend time in learning mechanical processes which are not used, and in shaping wood and metal merely as a laboratory exercise does not keep the student in his true relation to the workshop. Excellence in construction, tested by the demands of the best judges, is an indispensable element in sound instruction in the mechanic arts.

It is evident that the sort of training recommended for mechanics is only possible in shops established for the express purpose of instruction. The apprentice in a school-shop has the capital advantage of exemption from the restraint of the employer's self-interest. When a man employs others, at wages, he has a right to demand their service in such ways as shall be most serviceable to himself. Apprentices must of course do the rough work. Now from such work the school-shop does not excuse them, but it does not keep them at it any longer than the interests of the students require. So that, with the aid of free-drawing, judicious distribution of time, exemption from all mere drudgery, and the immense advantage of learning handicraft with the quickened intelligence which the school imparts, the graduate of the school from a three years' course can hold his own, in *mere handicraft*, with the journeymen who have served their three years in a shop.

III. The student must not expect any pecuniary return for his work.

The school-shop is embarrassed by the limited demand for first-rate work in the market and by the small profit on such work. The presence of the apprentices diminishes its productive capacity; for the shop not only loses what the apprentices destroy in their practice, but what the journeymen might produce who might occupy the students' places and the instructors might produce were they free from the necessity of teaching the apprentices. The work of the apprentices does not by any means equal the cost of their instruction. It costs more than the amount of the tuition to give the *shop instruction alone*. In gross it costs \$3,000 a year to carry on the shop above the profit on its earnings. Education is its own reward. A student has no more claim upon a school-shop for wages than a student of Harvard College has upon that institution.

On this point of the advantage to the institution of students' work, there is a strange misconception. How can the product of a shop which is wholly filled with apprentices be sold at a profit when shops full of skilled workmen can barely live? If in the movement of modern manufacturing division of labor is the iron-rule and each man makes but one thing and even then only the soundest business ability wins success, how is a school-shop to pay its way when apprentices must be given some variety of work?

In other words shop management *solely* for the good of a body of students, and shop management *solely* for the profit of it, are, in the nature of

things, incompatible. An institution must not hope to succeed in an enterprise which no good business man would undertake. A good school is a harmonious whole. All its parts must be started together and carried on with equal prominence.

I have thus briefly stated the salient points in the scheme, which has been on trial at Worcester for nine years without any substantial modifications. Its chief interest lies in the fact that it forms part of the modern problem of the rights and relations of labor. Intelligence in labor has in it the cure of all the ills which now attend it and the "promise and potency" of every good which may result from its proper adjustment to the nature of capital.

Some statistics of the Worcester School are given as an appendix.

STATISTICS OF THE WORCESTER SCHOOL.

The County of Worcester, where the Institute is located, has of the population of the United States.....	.005 per cent.
Of all Inventions made in the United States.....	.012 " "
Of the population of New England.....	.06 " "
Of the Inventions of " "06 " "
Average Annual Income from Funds	\$23,500
" " " " Tuition.....	1,500
<hr/>	
Annual Expenditure.....	\$25,000
Annual Expense of Shop in excess of Profits on Manufactures provided for by income from funds.....	\$3,000
<hr/>	
Weeks in School Year, including Examinations,.....	42
Total Weeks in Three Years' Course.....	126
Length of Course for Mechanics.....	3½ years.
" " " " Others.....	3 "
Per cent. of Attendance.....	97
Square feet of Floor Space in the two Buildings.....	42,934
<hr/>	
Number of Professors.....	8
" " Tutors	1
" " Assistants.....	2
" " Lecturers	1—12
<hr/>	
Total No. Graduates	135
Number of Classes Graduated.....	7
Average number of Graduates.....	19½
Average age of Graduates.....	20.4
Apprentice Class of 1877	17

NUMBER OF UNDERGRADUATES IN 1876.

Seniors.....	27
Middlers	28
Juniors	37—92

GRADUATES.

The following statement, corrected to October 20, 1876, shows the occupations of the Graduates of the Institute.

The Roman numerals indicate the departments of practice: I., Mechanics; II., Civil Engineering; III., Drawing; IV., Chemistry; V., Physics.

BACHELORS OF SCIENCE.

Class of 1871.

NAME.	HOME.	PRESENT OCCUPATION.
Henry P. Armsby,	IV. Millbury.	Tutor in Chemistry, Rutgers College, Ph. B., Yale, 1874.
Everett J. Bardwell,	III. Worcester.	Builder, With Norcross Bros., Worcester.
Frederick W. Bateman,	II. Still River.	Civil Engineer, Manchester & Keene R. R., N. H.
William R. Billings,	I. Worcester.	Journeyman, Mason Machine Co., Taunton.
Walter L. Chaloner,	III. Worcester.	Lithographic Artist, Powers Lith. Co., Springfield, Mass.
Edward K. Hill,	I. No. Brookfield.	Hill & Tolman, Mech. Engineers, Worcester.
Robert E. Holgate,	I. Fitchburg.	Journeyman, Putnam Machine Co., Fitchburg.
Elmer P. Howe,	IV. Worcester.	A. B., Class of 1876. Yale College. Hon. Com'r from Mass. to Vienna Exposition. Law Student with Hillard, Hyde & Dickinson, Boston.
Samuel S. Jennison,	I. E. Templeton.	Manuf'r of Dies, E. Templeton.
Wm. A. Nelson,	I. Sterling.	Journeyman, Elgin Watch Co., Chicago, Ill.
George H. Nichols,	III. Oxford.	Assistant Engineer, Ass't to Consulting Engineer, Penn. Central R. R.
George A. Thompson,	II. Worcester.	Civil Engineer, Erie R. R., Hornellsville, N. Y.
Edward F. Tolman,	I. Worcester.	Hill & Tolman, Mech. Engineers, Worcester, Draughtsman, Bureau of Machinery, Centennial Exposition, Phila.
Edward H. Whitney,	I. Harvard.	Chief Clerk, Des Moines & Keokuk R. R.
Frank O. Whitney,	II. Fitchburg.	Civil Engineer, City Office, Boston, Mass.

Class of 1872.

NAME.	HOME.	PRESENT OCCUPATION.
Frank Aborn,	III. Worcester.	Sup't of Drawing, Public Schools, Cleveland, O.
Parkman T. Denny,	III. Leicester.	Architect, 460 Main Street, Worcester.
Solon P. Davis,	III. Holden.	Teacher of Drawing, Public Schools, Hartford, Conn.
Simpson C. Heald, Jr.,	I. Worcester.	Civil Engineer, With Phineas Ball, Water Works, Clinton.
Harding Jenkins,	I. Barre.	
Samuel E. Mann,	IV. No. Brookfield.	Teacher of Drawing, Middletown, Conn.
Jonathan Moore,	II. Holden.	Surveyor, Holden.
George H. Palmer,	II. Worcester.	Civil Engineer, City Office, Worcester.
John T. Quinn,	I. Worcester.	Journeyman, Washburn & Moen M'fg Co., Worcester.
Herbert S. Rice,	II. Barre.	Teacher of Chemistry and Drawing, Public Schools, Lawrence, Mass.
O. Willis Rugg,	II. Sterling.	Surveyor, Sterling.
George H. Scott,	I. Amherst.	Journeyman, Washburn Mach. Shop, Worcester.
Kirtland M. Smith,	II. Worcester.	Ass't Engineer, Lehigh & Wilkes-Barre Coal Co., Lansford, Pa.
Melvin B. Smith,	II. Worcester.	Ass't Engineer, U. S. Coast Survey, Barataria, La.
Edward R. White,	II. Farnumsville.	Civil Engineer, Grafton Centre Railroad.
Arthur W. Woods,	II. Leominster.	Civil Engineer, 22 Pearl Street, Worcester.

Class of 1873.

NAME.	HOME.	PRESENT OCCUPATION.
Arthur C. Aldrich,	I. Worcester.	Teacher, Illinois
Edward C. Cleaves,	I. Fitchburg.	Assistant Professor of Drawing, Cornell University.
Fred H. Daniels,	I. Worcester.	Chemist to Washburn & Moen M'fg Co., Worcester.
Fred I. Drown,	II. Blackstone.	
George H. Fowler,	I. Barre.	Draughtsman, Prov. Tool Co., Providence, R. I.

Willard T. Hatch,	I. Hanover. Draughtsman, Atlas Works, Indianapolis, Ind.
John W. Kendrick,	II. Worcester. Civil Engineer, Manchester & Keene R. R., N. H.
Alfred Lovell,	II. W. Boylston. Draughtsman, Manchester & Keene R. R., Nashua, N. H.
Wallace Metcalf,	I. Worcester. Journeyman, Washburn & Moen Manufacturing Co., Worcester.
Arthur M. Morse,	I. Worcester. Atlas Works, Indianapolis, Ind.
Lucius B. Morgan,	III. Worcester.* Teacher of Drawing, Public Schools, Worcester.
John P. K. Otis,	II. Worcester. Civil Engineer, Portland Water Works, Portland, Me.
James H. Patton,	II. Fitchburg. With H. M. Francis, Architect, Fitchburg.
Russell S. Penniman,	I. Webster. Sup't Hoosac Tunnel Nitro-Glycerine Works, North Adams.
Edwin F. Simonds,	I. Fitchburg. Draughtsman, Simonds M'fg Co., Fitchburg.
Edward F. Tourtellot,	I. Worcester. Student, Normal Art School, Boston.
Frank A. Waite,	II. Oakdale. Bookkeeper For J. E. Waite, W. Brookfield.
Walter M. Wheelock,	II. Mendon. Teacher, Blackstone.

Class of 1874.

NAME.	HOME.	PRESENT OCCUPATION.
Frank E. Appleton,	I. Reading.	Ass't Engineer, Sawyer's River R. R., Upper Bartlett, N. H.
William H. Bailey,	II. Fitchburg.	
Halsey H. Barnes,*	II. Dudley.	Chicago, Burlington & Quincy R. R., Galesburg, Ill.
William C. Boyce,	II. Worcester.	Teacher, Public Schools, Auburn.
Clarence A. Chandler,	I. E. Bridgewater.	Howe & Chandler, Mech. Engineers, Boston.
U. Waldo Cutler,	II. Holliston.	Teacher of Drawing, Holliston.
Henry S. Howe,	I. Worcester.	Howe & Chandler, Mech. Engineers, Boston

* Deceased.

Charles S. Joslin,	IV. Webster. With M. O. Carter, Druggist, Lowell.
Henry L. Kinsley,	1. Worcester. Bradford Kinsley & Son, Manufacturers Woolen Goods, Stoughton, Mass.
Samuel H. Leonard, Jr.,	W. Newton. Draughtsman, Dep't of Public Buildings, Newton.
Edward H. Lincoln,	II. Lancaster. Civil Engineer, and U. S. Deputy Surveyor, Boulder City, Col.
Warren S. Locke,	I. Lancaster. Journeyman, Parker Machine Co., Clinton.
Edwin P. Painter,	II. Worcester. Box Manufacturer, Worcester.
Herbert J. Russell	II. Worcester.
Charles F. Smith,†	II. Barre.
Clarence A. Strange,	I. Bangor. Ass't Engineer, U. S. Navy, Steamer Hartford.
T. Edward Wilder,	I. Lancaster. Bookkeeper, Walker, Oakley & Co., Chicago.

Class of 1875.

NAME.	HOME.	PRESENT OCCUPATION.
Walter U. Barnes,	IV. Worcester.	Ass't in Chemistry, Worcester Free Institute.
Enos H. Bigelow,	II. Framingham.	Tutor in Languages, Worcester Free Institute.
John F. Brown,	1. Fitchburg.	Journeyman, With C. H. Brown & Co., Fitchburg, in charge of Engine, Saw Mill, Centennial Grounds, Phila.
Lucien R. Burleigh,	II. Worcester.	
Charles C. Chandler,	II. Westboro.	
Leroy Cook,	I. Worcester.	Journeyman, Winslow Skate Shop, Worcester.
Charles E. Davis,	1. Holden.	Journeyman, Washburn Machine Shop.
Herbert B. Knight,	1. Worcester.	
J. Edward Lynds.	1. Sterling.	Teacher, Blue Grass, Scott Co., Iowa.
Edwin C. Mawhinney,	I. Worcester.	
Arba F. Pierce,	II. Worcester.	
John H. Rice,	I. So. Lancaster.	
George H. Scott,	II. Northbridge.	
William H. Stone,	I. E. Greenwich, R. I.	

† Died in Barre, May 28, 1876.

Charles G. Stratton,	II. Worcester.	Civil Engineer, New Worcester Dam, Worcester.
Henry B. Tyler,	II. Worcester.	
Charles G. Washburn,	I. Worcester.	Student, Harvard University.
Charles F. White,	I. Brookline.	
Charles G. Whitney,	I. Harvard.	

Class of 1876.

NAME.	HOME.	PRESENT OCCUPATION.
Edward P. Adams,	II. Medford.	Civil Engineer, Boston.
Charles E. Alger,	II. Auburn.	With Shedd & Sawyer, Civil Engineers, Boston.
Charles L. Annan,	II. Lawrence.	Sub-Master, Oliver Grammar School, Lawrence.
Luther H. Bateman.	IV. Still River.	
Frank C. Blake,	V. Worcester.	Ass't in Laboratory, and Student in Mining, Lafayette College, Easton, Pa.
Benjamin S. Crocker,	II. Cotuit.	
Emil Gerber,	II. Webster.	
Howard V. Hinckley,	II. Marston's Mills.	Surveyor, Marston's Mills.
Wellington M. Houghton,	II. Wilkinsonville.	
Nathan E. Kelley,	I. Worcester.	
John F. Kyes,	III. Worcester.	Sup't of Drawing, Public Schools, Faribault, Minn.
William B. Medlicott,	II. Longmeadow.	Teacher, Mathematics and Physics, Springfield Coll. Inst.
Lowell M. Muzzy,	II. Spencer.	Teacher of Drawing, Spencer.
John M. Russell,	IV. Oakdale.	Telegraph Operator, Oakdale.
John G. Shackley,	II. W. Brookfield.	
Hermann R. E. Siebert,	I. Washington, D. C.	Instrument Maker, Washington, D. C.
Herbert M. C. Skinner,	I. Fall River.	Draughtsman, Baldwin Locomotive Works, Phila.
Clarence E. Sprague,	II. N. Uxbridge.	
C. Carroll Upham,	I. Worcester.	Setting up Machinery for Slater Woolen Co., Webster, Mass.
George H. White,	II. Worcester.	Civil Engineer, East Castle Rock, Minn.

Mark Wilmarth,	II. Worcester.	Civil Engineer, Sewer Dep't, Boston.
John C. Woodbury,	III. Charlton.	Designer, Worcester.

Partial Course.

NAME.	HOME.	PRESENT OCCUPATION.
	1871.	
F. Walter Hamilton,	II. Worcester.	
	1872.	
Walter A. Brown,	IV. Princeton.	Teacher, Chemistry and English, French Institute, Fort Washington, N. Y. City.
Daniel P. Wright,	I. Washington, D. C.	Draughtsman, Erie R. R., Jersey City, N. J.
	1873.	
Frank M. Clark,	I. Sandwich, N. H.	Manufacturer, Sandwich, N. H.
Frank H. Goddard,	I. Barre.	Machinist, Car Shops, C., R. I. & P. R. R., Chicago, Ill.

Non-Graduate Members.

NAME.	HOME.	PRESENT OCCUPATION.
	1871.	
Charles Parkhurst,	I. Templeton.	House Painter, Templeton.
John D. Curtis,	I. Worcester.	Draughtsman and Engineer, Bureau of Machinery, Centennial Exposition, Phila.
	1872.	
J. Langford Slocomb,	I. Providence, R. I.	With Brown and Sharp Manuf. Co., Providence, R. I.
Frank Stone,	I. Worcester.	
	1876.	
Charles S. Bragg,	IV. Braggville.	
Theodore Overbeck,	II. Gloucester.	
Charles W. Sanders,	II. Worcester.	

The report of the Committee on Nomination of Officers was called for and given as follows:

For President—J. D. RUNKLE, of Massachusetts.

For Vice President—L. S. THOMPSON, of Indiana.

For Secretary—CHAS. Y. LACY, of Minnesota.

These officers were elected by acclamation.

The Department then adjourned.

DEPARTMENT OF SUPERINTENDENCE.

(SPECIAL MEETING.)

First Day's Proceedings.

MARCH 1, 1877.

The Department met in Washington City. The following named persons were present:—National Officer, the Hon. JOHN EATON; State Officers, the Honorables CHAS. S. SMART of Ohio, J. P. WICKERSHAM of Pennsylvania, B. G. NORTHROP of Connecticut, J. W. DICKINSON of Massachusetts, M. A. NEWELL of Maryland, and S. M. ETTER, of Illinois; City Superintendents, A. J. RICKOFF of Cleveland, Ohio, GEO. J. LUCKEY, of Pittsburgh, Pa., J. O. WILSON of Washington, D. C., H. S. McRAE of Muncie, Ind., E. A. WILMER of Hagerstown, Md., CHAS. NORTHEND of New Britain, Conn., R. L. CARNE of Alexandria, Va., J. H. LEHMAN of Canton, Ohio, H. S. JONES, of Erie, Pa., and H. E. SHEPHERD, of Baltimore, Md.; also J. W. HOYT of Wisconsin, M. R. LEVERSON of Colorado, G. Y. ATTER and ZALMON RICHARDS of Washington City, and the Hon. THOS. W. BICKNELL of Massachusetts.

The Department was called to order by the Hon. JOHN EATON and in the absence of the President, C. S. SMART, M. A. NEWELL was called to the chair. The Secretary, the Hon. H. S. TARBELL, of Michigan, being absent, H. S. JONES was chosen Secretary *pro tem*.

The Hon. JOHN EATON, National Commissioner of Education, then stated the object of this special meeting and, among other matters, suggested the importance of a national representation of education at Paris, in 1878.

On motion, the chair appointed special committees as follows:

I. *The Organization of an Educational Museum*—Messrs. BICKNELL, NORTHROP, and WILMER.

II. *On Plan for Publication of Educational Reports, etc.*, growing out of the Centennial—Messrs. NORTHEND, DICKINSON, and JONES.

III. *On Promotion of Popular Education in the South*—Messrs. ETTER, NEWELL, BICKNELL.

IV. *On Teachers' Salaries*—Messrs. DICKINSON, ETTER, WILSON.

V. *The Importance of High Schools as a part of the public-school system*; the same committee as on No. IV.

On motion of Superintendent LUCKEY, it was voted that the forms of city and State school statistics be considered. On city statistics the chair appointed Messrs. LUCKEY, RICKOFF, and WILSON; and on State statistics, Messrs. WICKERSHAM, SMART, and DICKINSON.

The remainder of the session was devoted to business of minor importance, and the Department adjourned to meet on Friday, at 9 A. M.

Second Day's Proceedings.

FRIDAY, MARCH 2, 1877.

Department met at 9 A. M., Superintendent SMART presiding.

Superintendent LUCKEY remarked on the importance of uniformity of statistics of schools in cities, inasmuch as a lack of uniformity prevented a fair comparison of the condition of education, cost, attendance, etc. His opinion was that the present statistics of many cities were almost useless at home, and absolutely useless abroad, as standards of comparison. The same terms had different meanings in different places. "Incidentals," "average number of pupils belonging," "cost of tuition," were terms of variable meaning.

Commissioner EATON said that, though our school statistics are in some particulars imperfect, they are much sought for by educators abroad, and are regarded as superior to any others published. Financial statistics of boards of trade show great discrepancies, as well as those of education. A great and growing value is now placed upon educational statistics. Errors in statistics, experts tell us, are subject to balances, as in calculations in astronomy. Our statistics are our arguments, better by far than the opinions and speculations of previous days. The school statistics of England, and especially of Sweden, have taught her legislators the best lessons of social economy, on which BBOUGHAM, BRIGHT, and READE have based their great educational reforms. We are making great improvement in our data of school work, and as educators come to appreciate the value of facts, they will the more readily improve, and study the figures of educational science.

Superintendent NEWELL believed we should have a few central facts, and that the forms should be simple as well as uniform.

Superintendent SMART thought that forms were not well understood by school officers, and spoke of one in Ohio who reported an average attendance of pupils in school of one hundred and sixty-five per cent! He expressed a hope that the committee would report a clear and systematic plan of statistics.

Superintendent WICKERSHAM reported that the State statistics of Pennsylvania were uniform, simple, and satisfactory in their results. The city of Philadelphia was the only exception to a perfect State uniformity. He does not favor uniformity save in cardinal principles. Unity in variety is the true law. In respect to the school age, he said that in Pennsylvania the legal school age was from six to twenty-one, inclusive, and that the report showed *three hundred thousand* between those ages not at school. The State was thereby misjudged as to its educational status. Foreigners were especially misled by such figures.

Superintendent NORTHEND remarked that Connecticut had established the school age between four and sixteen years. He thought four years too young to enter school.

Superintendent RICKOFF's experience led him to feel that great improvements had been made in this matter. What was chaos twenty-five years

ago was now comparative order. He found little difficulty in comparing the results of fifteen or more leading cities of the United States. There are obstacles which power cannot overcome. He suggested a sheet of instructions to school officers as to the use of the tables.

Superintendent NORTHROP spoke of the remarkable work of Supt. CHAS. READE of obtaining such statistics as served London for free schools at the late election.

Mr. BICKNELL thought that the causes of the want of uniformity of statistics should be traced out. These were (1), Public indifference; (2), Official indifference or carelessness; (3), Want of authority on the part of officials to secure proper returns; (4), Want of uniform understanding as to the meaning of terms; (5), An attempt to prove certain preconceived opinions. He offered a resolution, that the legal school age of the several States should be fixed at five and fifteen years, inclusive, for the purposes of determining the questions of school attendance and uniform comparisons as to juvenile literacy and illiteracy, which was referred to the committee on statistics.

The Department then adjourned, to meet in the evening at 7:30 P. M., after an invitation had been given to meet, at 2 o'clock P. M., at the Curtis School building, Georgetown, at which a meeting of the teachers of Washington was held, to listen to a lecture by Hon. B. G. NORTHROP, on the "Lessons of the Centennial."

EVENING SESSION.

Superintendent WICKERSHAM made report from the committee on an educational representation at the Paris Exposition as follows:

This Department holds it to be very important that the several interests for the United States be represented at the Exposition to be held at Paris, France, in the year 1878, for the following reasons, among others: (1) France is an ancient friend and ally of the United States, and such action would be considered a grateful courtesy from one republic to another. (2) Her government and people were largely and richly represented at our own Centennial Exposition. Such an exhibition of our interests at this time would open up new markets for our material products, and furnish an opportunity, which should be improved, of making better known abroad the character of our political institutions.

Further, there are special reasons, we deem, why the educational systems and institutions of this country should be represented in the said forthcoming International Exposition,—among them the following:—1. The vital relation that is acknowledged by thinking men in all countries to exist between education and the welfare if not the existence of a government like that of the United States. 2. The intense interest that is everywhere felt in the Old World in the work of education in this country. 3. Justice to our own country, and the people who are putting forth such praiseworthy efforts to make education universal among all classes and all conditions of men within our borders.

In view of these considerations, your committee recommend the adoption of the following resolutions:

1. That Congress be earnestly requested to make ample provision at once for a full representation of the several interests of this country, especially that of education, at the Paris Exposition.

2. That the different State governments be invited to co-operate in the educational part of this work.

3. That we earnestly desire that such a commission be constituted by the general government, or by the several State governments conjointly, to take charge of the educational exhibit, as will make it comprehensive, complete, thoroughly organic, and representative.

4. That the United States Commissioner of Education be requested to lay before this Department at the general meeting of the National Association, in August next, the result of his correspondence with the Minister of Public Instruction in France, and other foreign officials, in reference to an International Congress to be held in conjunction with the Paris Exposition.

5. That a committee of this body be appointed to ascertain and report at its next meeting the feasibility of chartering a steamer for a great teachers' excursion to the Exposition at Paris, and the accommodation that can be secured in that city for the board and lodging of a large body of teachers, and in addition, what arrangements can be made for such an excursion of teachers, to embrace, in addition to the Paris Exposition, a tour through several of the most interesting countries of Europe.

6. That a committee be also appointed to take charge of the subject herein considered, in the interest of education and of this Department, until the commission be constituted suggested in the third resolution, and thereafter as an auxiliary to such commission.

After some debate the report was adopted.

The President appointed all the members present, with Commissioner EATON as chairman, a committee to urge Congress to take action in regard to the representation of this country at the Paris Exposition, and Messrs. WICKERSHAM of Pennsylvania, NORTHROP of Connecticut, and RICKOFF of Ohio, as a committee to take charge of the exhibition until a commission should be appointed.

At 9:20 the convention adjourned until Saturday, at 9 o'clock.

Third Day's Proceedings.

SATURDAY, MARCH 3, 1877.

The session was opened by the reading of the report of the Committee on Southern Education, by Superintendent ETTER, of Illinois. The resolutions were as follows:

Whereas, The establishment of universal education in large portions of our country is of recent date; and

Whereas, Many different questions are involved that have long since been settled in some sections of the country; therefore,

Resolved, That the members of this Department express their earnest sympathy with those friends of universal education laboring under the special embarrassments of prejudice, and opposition to the elevation of the entire population, and that we pledge ourselves to co-operate with them, in every appropriate manner, to render needed assistance.

Resolved, That to allow any portion of our population to remain in ignorance is a crime and a menacing danger to our free institutions, and of all the subjects now demanding the attention of the government, should of right take precedence.

Resolved, That it is the duty of each and every member of this Association to use his influence with members of Congress, to secure all the legislation that is required to furnish the National Bureau of Education with ample means for the publication of documents giving the information, arguments, and instructions, necessary for conducting the best system of schools, and explaining to the people the best methods of instruction and school-house architecture.

Resolved, That we earnestly recommend that Congress devise some appropriate constitutional means for aiding pecuniarily in the educational work, especially in those sections of the country that are surrounded by difficulties arising from ignorance and prejudice, and that such pecuniary aid should be distributed *pro rata* on the basis of the illiteracy of the several States.

Resolved, That in no way can the proceeds of the public lands be so profitably employed as in aid of the general education of the masses.

The Hon. B. G. NORTHRUP spoke of the efforts of Virginia to establish a system of free schools. He did not favor mixed schools in the South.

Superintendent CARNE spoke of his work in Alexandria, Va. He favored separate race schools. He thought much was due the South, of sympathy and aid.

Superintendent McRAE gave an account of the rapid progress of education in Indiana since 1840, and thought that the State had made more rapid advance in ten years than any other.

THE REDUCTION OF TEACHERS' SALARIES, &c.

The Hon. J. W. DICKINSON reported the following paper, which was adopted, with little discussion:

MR. PRESIDENT:

The committee appointed to consider the proposed reduction of teachers' salaries, and the relation the high school holds to the elementary schools, submit the following:

With reference to teachers' salaries, the committee report against a reduction, and for these reasons.

1. School teaching has never been as well paid in this country as other professional labor, requiring an equal amount of skill and the expenditure of an equal amount of physical and mental strength; so that if there be a reduction in the salaries and wages paid for other labor, still, without reduction, school teaching is likely to be more poorly paid than any other labor from which so much is expected and required.

2. The school system of a country and all the machinery of the schools may be perfect, and yet the character of the schools themselves will depend upon the character of the teachers of them. On this account school teachers should possess the highest order of talent; but a reduction of salaries would drive such teachers out of the profession, and leave in the schools only those who teach from a necessity arising from the fact that they can find nothing else to do.

3. The highest and best results in the schools can never be reached until the teachers of them have a professional training, and until they make teaching a life work. A reduction of salaries, already too low, would prevent all this, and fill the schools with teachers who would have no preparation for their work, and who would be constantly looking beyond their present employment for something more profitable and honorable to do.

4. The salaries paid to teachers is an expression of the estimation in which the schools of a country are held by the people. If a proper salary is paid to the teacher, on account of it, his profession will appear more honorable to him, and he will attach to it a greater responsibility. This will stimulate him to prepare himself well for his work, and to make his work a constant study, so that he may acquire all possible skill in its application.

For these reasons the committee are unanimous in the belief, that great harm would come to the schools if the salaries of the teachers are reduced.

The committee also consider that the high school holds a necessary relation to the elementary schools. For as elementary instruction has for its object only elementary knowledge, if the high school is taken away from the system of public schools, no public provision would be made for teaching scientific knowledge. Now all elementary knowledge should be taught with especial reference to the scientific knowledge that is to be occasioned by it.

If the high school is wanting in our system of schools, a necessary part of a whole is gone. The high-school work must be done, or our pupils will leave the schools without the knowledge or the culture necessary to enable them to use the facts they have learned, and without method for future study.

If there are no schools, especially for scientific teaching, this work would be attempted in the grammar schools, and these schools will lose their distinctive character, and will be burdened and overtasked.

2. The existence of a good high school in a town stimulates and gives direction to the elementary schools. For the pupils passing regularly from one grade of instruction to another, look for the completion of their studies to the high-school course; therefore, the removal of the high school from the system would materially injure the character and efficiency of the lower schools.

3. If the character of the lower schools is disturbed, and the high school is taken away, those parents who are able to educate their children at their own expense, will withdraw them from the public schools and place them in private schools. This will lay the foundation for those class dis-

tinctions that must at length prove fatal to republican institutions. Besides this, the wealthy class will be likely to lose much of their interest in the public schools, and the schools will suffer every way on this account. Our safety is to be found, not only in universal education, but in the education, to a certain extent, of all our children together in the same grade of schools.

4. The existence of a high school in a town enables parents, living in that town, to educate their children at home, where they should always be, during their early years, surrounded by the restraints and teachings of home life. If children are educated at home, many of those evils will be averted that come to those who are away from the influences of paternal care and love.

5. The high school will have a tendency to break down those barriers that prevent some from contending for good ends, on equal terms with others, by enabling all alike to obtain that knowledge and culture which are necessary to the highest personal success in life.

For these reasons the committee think the high school should by all means be retained in our system of public schools.

J. W. DICKINSON,
S. M. ETTER,
J. O. WILSON,

Committee.

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL MUSEUM.

Mr. BICKNELL, from the committee on an Educational Museum, made report in the following resolution:

Resolved, That the superintendents recognize the great importance of the organization of an educational museum at Washington, using as the basis of such a museum the national educational exhibit at Philadelphia; and still further resolved, that the provision of plans and means of operation of such a museum be submitted to a special committee of this body, to report at the annual meeting of the Association in August next.

On motion of Superintendent NORTHERD, Messrs. BICKNELL, WILMER, and NORTROP, were appointed as the special committee referred to.

THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

On motion of Superintendent WILSON, it was voted that Mr. J. W. DICKINSON be requested by this Department to prepare a paper upon "The Relation of the High School to the Elementary School," to be read before the National Association at its annual meeting to be held in August next, and that the secretary of this meeting be instructed to notify the President of the Association of this action.

The Department then adjourned, to visit the Corcoran Gallery, President GRANT, and President-elect HAYES.

(REGULAR MEETING.)

First Day's Proceedings.

TUESDAY, AUGUST 14, 1877.

The Department met in one of the rooms of Liederkranz Hall, Louisville, Ky., at 3 P. M. The Hon. JAMES H. SMART and HAMILTON S. McRAE, of Indiana, were chosen temporary President and Secretary.

After an informal discussion as to the probability of securing the attendance of more members, the Department adjourned until 2 P. M., Wednesday.

Second Day's Proceedings.

WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 15, 1877.

The Department met at 2 P. M., the President, the Hon. C. S. SMART, of Ohio, presiding.

M. A. NEWELL, GEO. P. BROWN, and WM. S. WOOD were appointed Committee on Nomination of Officers.

Hon. JAMES H. SMART, of Indiana, opened the discussion on the Educational Museum. He had conversed with General EATON, the National Commissioner, on the subject. The Commissioner had a vast amount of material stored away. He had no space or means for display. An appropriation by Congress was needed for the purpose.

Hon. J. P. WICKERSHAM, from the Committee on Paris Exposition, said that he was able to report progress. It is necessary for the Government to make the exhibit. He had indirectly communicated with the Minister of Instruction of France. Unless Congress made an appropriation there would be no exhibit of American Schools at Paris. Letters were read, on the subject of expense of attending the Exposition, from Messrs. NORTHROP and LOOMIS. The Committee could state that Dr. S. P. MAY, of Ontario, would take a party to the Exposition for two weeks, spending also two weeks in Scotland and England, at two hundred dollars in gold. The expense in Paris for moderate living would not be greater than in Philadelphia.

The Department adjourned to meet at 8 A. M., at the Galt House, in the parlor of the President of the Association.

Third Day's Proceedings.

THURSDAY, AUGUST 16, 1877.

The Department met at 8 A. M.

The Committee on Officers reported :

For President—J. P. WICKERSHAM.

For Vice-President—JAMES H. SMART.

For Secretary—R. W. STEVENSON.

In view of the fact that the programme of the General Association had embraced the topics of the afternoon the Department decided to adjourn.

On invitation of Mr. WILSON the Department adjourned to meet at the call of the President after consultation with the National Commissioner.

HAMILTON S. McRAE, Secretary *pro tempore*.

Omitted Paper.

The following paper was not received in time for publication in its proper place, page 22. When the printing had reached page 86 a card was received that the paper had been sent by express. The press was stopped for two days in hopes of receiving it in time to print with the other delayed papers. The paper did not, however, arrive in time, and hence its insertion in this place.

THE STUDY OF ENGLISH AS INTRODUCTORY TO THE STUDY OF GREEK AND LATIN.

BY THOMAS R. PRICE, M. A., *Professor of Greek, University of Virginia.*

It is good for us at times, amid the infinite complexities that bewilder modern thought, to get our minds filled by that simple and direct perception of elementary truth which flashed itself in upon earlier thinkers.

In the last years of the 9th century, Alfred the Great was using the peaceful close of a stormy life in brave efforts to reform the religion and education of England. For the good of his subjects, he turned the Pastoral of Pope GREGORY from Latin into the English of his time, and he had a copy of it put for his people's reading in every parish church of Wessex. In his preface to that translation, the great, wise king lays down the outline of his thoughts upon education, and he works himself up in his simple-minded and luminous fashion, to the formulation of a very great principle. "I think it better," writes the king, "that all the youths that are now in England, may for a time give themselves up to no other work till first they will know how to understand the English. Let them that wish to know more learn Latin afterwards."

Such was the great king's plan, away back in the 9th century, for the philologized education of English-speaking boys. Such is the plan that, after the blunders of a thousand years, still seems to me the only one capable of achieving for the English-speaking boys of this our 19th century any of the great benefits of philologized culture.

It is because we seem to have forgotten this great principle of education that I wish to plead once more for the natural rights of the mother-tongue. I wish to enforce the old truth, by modern arguments. I wish to show, from my own and from others' experience in the school-room, that the only natural and right introduction to the study of any other language is the study of those facts and laws of language that are contained in the mother-tongue itself; above all, as a teacher of Greek, as one that sees year after year more than half his efforts for the furtherance of the Greek studies foiled and thwarted by the prevalence of false methods in philology. I wish to prove that the only rational preparation for the study of Greek and Latin is the scientific and practical study of the English.

All true and rational education is a matter of well-devised and easy sequences. In leading on a child's mind to any height of acquisition, it is the duty, it is the power, of the skilful teacher, to establish the rational sequence of subjects, to begin with the easiest and to lead on, without a jerk or break of sequence to the subjects that are harder. The great highway of science, the only royal road of learning, is the path from the known to the unknown. If you apply this axiom of science to fix the sequences of philologized studies, it is plain that the first stage of linguistic education should be education in the understanding and use of the mother-tongue. Each child before he comes into our hands has gained some control over some small part at least of the vocabulary and laws of English speech. Such knowledge of English, small as it is, is the means for him, the only means he has, of increasing his knowledge in any and in all directions. Thus his knowledge of the English and his power over it are the measure,

studies in all good schools, the educational power of the mother-tongue has fallen so strangely into disuse that I must ask your pardon for laying emphasis on truths that ought to be truisms. In almost all the high schools of England and the United States, the study of the English language, so far as I can judge by reading and experience, is either absurdly dwarfed or altogether neglected. The cause of this neglect is to be found in the history of our education. The old schools of England still bear upon their schemes of study, the distorting influence of that mediæval time when the English was called and considered a vulgar tongue, and when all the effective power of the school was applied to forcing in upon the minds of the young the use of Latin as the language of science and literature. Hence in defiance of all common sense, by the instinct of an unwise conservatism, the English schoolmasters of the 19th century, like the English schoolmasters of the 15th, still go on for the most part putting Latin into the place of English, and even excluding the mother-tongue from the range of school discipline. Thus it is one of the strange anomalies, one of the surviving barbarisms, of English life, that the same Eton boy, who when he goes up to the University can write a decent copy of Latin verses, modelled on VERGIL or OVID, is wholly unable to comprehend a

Omitted Paper.

The following paper was not received in time for publication in its proper place, page 22. When the printing had reached page 86 a card was received that the paper had been sent by express. The press was stopped for two days in hopes of receiving it in time to print with the other delayed papers. The paper did not, however, arrive in time, and hence its insertion in this place.

EXPLANATION.—By some unaccountable accident a page or two of the copy of this paper was lost either before or after the transmission of the manuscript by express. No doubt the full address in a corrected form will appear in the Virginia Educational Journal, a part having already been published in that journal. The loss of copy was not ascertained until after the sheets were sent to the bindery. Prof. Price had no opportunity to correct the proof. The minor mistakes the reader may correct for himself. The following are clerical mistakes:—"philologized" for "philological" in three places, twice in the third paragraph, and once in the fifth; "philology. I" for "philology, I," near the bottom of p. 262; and "core—" for "core," near the middle of p. 264. Printer's mistakes:—"especial" for "special" second line of last paragraph, p. 264; and "tenses. Potential" instead of "tenses, Potential," next to last paragraph of p. 269.

England, may for a time give themselves up to no other work till first they will know how to understand the English. Let them that wish to know more learn Latin afterwards."

Such was the great king's plan, away back in the 9th century, for the philologized education of English-speaking boys. Such is the plan that, after the blunders of a thousand years, still seems to me the only one capable of achieving for the English-speaking boys of this our 19th century any of the great benefits of philologized culture.

It is because we seem to have forgotten this great principle of education that I wish to plead once more for the natural rights of the mother-tongue. I wish to enforce the old truth, by modern arguments. I wish to show, from my own and from others' experience in the school-room, that the only natural and right introduction to the study of any other language is the study of those facts and laws of language that are contained in the mother-tongue itself; above all, as a teacher of Greek, as one that sees year after year more than half his efforts for the furtherance of the Greek studies foiled and thwarted by the prevalence of false methods in philology. I wish to prove that the only rational preparation for the study of Greek and Latin is the scientific and practical study of the English.

All true and rational education is a matter of well-devised and easy sequences. In leading on a child's mind to any height of acquisition, it is the duty, it is the power, of the skilful teacher, to establish the rational sequence of subjects, to begin with the easiest and to lead on, without a jerk or break of sequence to the subjects that are harder. The great highway of science, the only royal road of learning, is the path from the known to the unknown. If you apply this axiom of science to fix the sequences of philologized studies, it is plain that the first stage of linguistic education should be education in the understanding and use of the mother-tongue. Each child before he comes into our hands has gained some control over some small part at least of the vocabulary and laws of English speech. Such knowledge of English, small as it is, is the means for him, the only means he has, of increasing his knowledge in any and in all directions. Thus his knowledge of the English and his power over it are the measure, the natural and infallible measure, of his fitness and ability to gain other knowledge. Here then lies the first term of all sound educational sequences. To increase, to expand, to intensify, the child's knowledge of his mother-tongue is to ripen and strengthen the intellect itself, and to furnish it for all great achievements. Every new English word that the child learns adds a new idea to his mind. Every new perception that he gets of law and order in the English sentence, of the relations of word to word in the simple sentence, of the relations of clause to clause in the complex sentence, is a new revelation to him of the laws of thought itself, and of the relations that exist between thought and thought in the universe of mind. Thus by concentrating the child's study wisely and firmly upon the facts and laws of his mother-tongue, we are leading him by every day's advance into higher and wider regions of knowledge and thought; we are opening up to him new worlds for his conquest, and giving him the weapons to make his conquests solid and lasting.

Yet in spite of these facts, facts that ought to control the sequence of studies in all good schools, the educational power of the mother-tongue has fallen so strangely into disuse that I must ask your pardon for laying emphasis on truths that ought to be truisms. In almost all the high schools of England and the United States, the study of the English language, so far as I can judge by reading and experience, is either absurdly dwarfed or altogether neglected. The cause of this neglect is to be found in the history of our education. The old schools of England still bear upon their schemes of study, the distorting influence of that mediæval time when the English was called and considered a vulgar tongue, and when all the effective power of the school was applied to forcing in upon the minds of the young the use of Latin as the language of science and literature. Hence in defiance of all common sense, by the instinct of an unwise conservatism, the English schoolmasters of the 19th century, like the English schoolmasters of the 15th, still go on for the most part putting Latin into the place of English, and even excluding the mother-tongue from the range of school discipline. Thus it is one of the strange anomalies, one of the surviving barbarisms, of English life, that the same Eton boy, who when he goes up to the University can write a decent copy of Latin verses, modelled on VERGIL or OVID, is wholly unable to comprehend a

play of SHAKSPERE, or to accept an invitation to dinner, without giving proof of his illiteracy. And in the high schools of the United States, this fault of the English school, this survival of mediævalism, has been preserved and even aggravated. Here too the child is forced into the study of the foreign language, Latin chiefly for the boys and French for the girls, long before he has been taught, and drilled, and strengthened in his knowledge and use of the English. Even worse than this, an absurd theory has been concocted as apology for an absurd practice. I know of large and important schools where boys are prepared for College and University upon the grotesque principle that the English language can be learned, and best learned, from the Latin Grammar.

The natural outcome of this nonsense is the shameful fact, that, among the graduates of our high schools, colleges, and Universities, we find a hundred that have a smattering of Latin, or French, or German, for the one that has learned how to read English with intelligence, or to write English with precision.

As an examiner I have found it to be the rule that young men tolerably familiar with the elements of 3 or 4 foreign languages are intolerably ignorant of their own. I have received numberless applications for places as teachers in schools and colleges, from graduates of famous American Universities, that could not, even in a simple letter of application, avoid the absurdest blunders in style, in grammar, even in spelling. Thus our American system of Language-teaching is rotten at the core—and foul with smears of illiteracy. We have broken the sequences of nature, we have dislocated the processes of the mind. By persisting so long in this error, by degrading the mother-tongue from its primacy in education, and by yearly forcing hundreds of thousands of untrained minds into linguistic studies for which their ignorance of English leaves them unprepared, we have robbed our schools of the largest part of their efficiency, and brought down, far below what it ought to be, the average culture of our school-bred population.

But in fighting my part of the fight against the consequences of this great blunder, I have had to face one especial side of this many-sided evil. For many years I have been laboring in school and college and University to train the young men of my own state in the languages and literatures of Greece and Rome. Thus in doing my own work, I have been forced to study the causes of my own frequent disappointments, and to determine why and how the common ignorance of the mother-tongue results in failure to acquire a satisfactory knowledge of the classical languages. For, in all these years, I have known no class in Greek or Latin that was not irremediably injured in efficiency and progress by its lack of command over the resources of the English. I have scarcely come in contact with a single mind, however earnest and vigorous it might be, that was not hemmed and hampered in its efforts to understand the languages of Greece and Rome, by the lack of adequate training in that language that should have been its instrument of acquisition. Suffer me, then, to state, as a teacher to teachers, some facts drawn from school-room experience, to show that full and generous study of English should, for English-speaking boys, go before the study of Greek or Latin.

In studying the Greek language, for example, the progress of the boy's mind is determined by the state of preparation in which that mind finds itself. The acquisition of the new language calls into play certain distinct powers of the mind; and the rate and solidity of the acquisition are dependent upon the training and strengthening that those powers have received.

The first power called into play by the study of the Greek, is the power of observation upon the facts of language, the power of seeing with rapidity and precision what facts agree with facts already known, and what facts are different and therefore strange. Without this trained habit of observation, the blundering mind soon loses its hold upon the facts and breaks down into stupid despair.

The second power called into play by the study of the Greek, is the power of memory, the power of arranging, reading, and recalling the facts of the new language. Weakness of memory, is, I think, the characteristic, natural defect of the American mind. But the facts of the new language are so immensely numerous, the acquisition of the new vocabulary and the mastering of the new constructions put upon the memory, so hard a strain, that, if this faculty be not skilfully trained to its new work, the whole fabric of knowledge must fall, in a short time, into utter dilapidation.

The third power needed for the learning of the new language is the power of sound and rapid reasoning upon the facts of language. To discern deductively how the special case is to be explained from the rule already known, and to pass inductively back from the facts that are given to the law that is contained in them, are processes that have to be gone through, under every tangle of complication, in thousands of ways, by every learner of the ancient literatures.

These three powers, the power of observation, the power of memory, and the power of accurate reasoning upon facts, are, as every teacher knows, absolutely needed for the successful study of the Greek or Latin. The mind that comes to the new work with these faculties already in good working order, will move onward in easy progress to the conquest of the language. But the mind that is defective in any of these powers must blunder on helpless to ultimate failure.

Here then from this point of view, we can take in at a glance the essential and all-important service that the study of the mother-tongue does to the mind in preparing it for the mastery of other tongues. It gives to the child, in the words and constructions of its native language, the largest possible number of easy and familiar facts, to be observed, remembered, and reasoned upon. The native language, as the child hears and reads it, opens up to his observation all the vast wealth of the great English vocabulary, with its nicely discriminated terms, with its myriad points of synonyms and antithesis. It makes him familiar with all the delicacies of construction, with the bearing of word on word, with the bearing of clause on clause. It trains his memory to carry the form, the sound, the significance of innumerable words, to hold these words classified by their associations, and to keep the chambers of the brain well stored with ordered treasures. But, above all, the study of the mother-tongue makes the child's mind familiar with the facts, the processes, and the laws, not of one lan-

guage only, but of language in general. It teaches him how to reason upon words, how to detect the relations of words, how to penetrate into the structure of sentences. The child or the man that knows his own language well is already a philologist. His mastery of other languages is then no longer a question of mental ability, but simply of time and opportunity. It is well for us who are always cramming children with foreign tongues, to remember that PLATO, when he wrote his *Kratylos*, that ARISTOTLE, when he built the system of logical analysis, were masters of one language only, and that one language was the mother-tongue. Thus in proportion as the study of the mother-tongue is careful and prolonged, the power of the mind to deal with the facts and laws of other languages becomes higher and higher. And, inversely, just in proportion to the child's ignorance of the vocabulary and structure of his own language, is his inability to acquire a living knowledge of words and constructions in the Greek and Latin. No amount of labor bestowed on the Greek or Latin directly can make a Greek or Latin scholar out of an English-speaking man that does not know English.

Let me here go a little deeper into details, let me point out some of the many ways in which a preliminary study of the mother-tongue is useful and even indispensable to a profitable study of Greek or Latin.

In our language, better than anywhere else, the child can learn the nature and functions of the parts of speech. For in the English, unlike the Greek or Latin, the recognition of the parts of speech, of verb and adjective and noun, of adverb, preposition and conjunction, is a matter of pure thought, it is the function of the word and not the form of the word that marks what it is. Hence, just so soon as the English-speaking child has learned to identify the parts of speech, by discerning their uses in the English sentence, he has in the grasp of his mind the whole machinery of the Greek proposition. But in Greek or Latin, the child is led to fix the parts of speech by the form of words instead of the force of words; in the unknown tongue, besides, the sentences that bewilder the mind by many words, do not so clearly reveal the functions of the separate words. Hence the boy's notions of the fundamental grammatical distinctions are apt to become blurred and confused. It will take an average boy two years to learn as much about the parts of speech, about the functions of each, and about the structure of sentences from his Latin grammar, as he could learn in two months of careful teaching in English.

Again, in the English, better than in any foreign language, the English-speaking child can learn the meaning and nature of the inflections. Even if the noun-inflection of the English has been sadly mutilated, it still has its old Saxon Genitive, its Possessive Case, to shed a flood of light on the form and meaning of the Genitive in Greek and Latin. But the rich inflections of the English pronouns still keep up the all-important formal distinction of the Nominative and Objective Cases; and the inflections of the English verb, simple and transparent yet, in spite of all that silly grammars have done to disguise them, still preserve their strong distinctions of form between the indicative and subjunctive moods, between the present and the past tense. From this study of the surviving English inflections, the well-taught English child can learn all that is needful to prepare his

mind for the fuller inflections of the Greek and Latin. No child should ever be allowed to begin the study of the classical languages till he has mastered the parts of speech and the inflections in English.

But it is the supreme merit of the English language as part of philological discipline that it opens up to the mind more clearly and simply than any other, the facts and laws of the logical analysis. Nowhere in the whole range of human speech is there any language that so clearly marks the elements of the simple predication. Nowhere one that indicates with such logical precision those relations of thought to thought that make up the complex or the compound sentence. Thus the syntax of the English language, as great foreign philologists have admitted, is the purest and least distorted application that can be found, of the laws of logic to the processes of speech. In the order of words and in the collocation of clauses, the English has such a peculiar transparency of logical expression, that the mind well trained to the analysis of the English sentence, can thread its way without trip or stumble through all the complexities of Greek or Latin construction. Now, as all teachers know, the chief trouble that young men find in reading the long and elaborate sentences in which the Greeks and Romans loved to express themselves, is the trouble of unriddling the relations of thought, that is, the trouble of following the logical analysis. They cannot take in the bearing of clause on clause; they cannot understand the subtle evolving of proposition out of proposition. But these are precisely the difficulties and inabilities that come from the untrained condition of their own thought. Hence if our young men could be taught so much of English as to understand the logical analysis of the English sentence all these formidable difficulties would fall away at once and forever from the study of the classical languages. How easy would be the uses of the Greek prepositions to the boy that had learned from his English teacher the use of the prepositional phrase as adverb and adjective! How fast the boy's mind would master the simpler and more sharply discriminated forms of the Greek condition, if he had learned beforehand to analyze and understand the more numerous and complicated forms of the condition in English! How simple would be the various uses of the *ὅπως* clause, if the child had been taught how to distinguish in an English sentence the indirect question, as the object of a verb, from the clause of purpose as the adverb! I do not fear to say that one year spent under a good teacher in mastering the principles of sentence-analysis in English would save two in the time of mastering the Greek or Latin syntax.

But the one greatest gain to the student of Greek or Latin from the careful study of his own mother-tongue is the gain of copiousness and precision in vocabulary. Take the case of a boy at work in turning a passage of PLATO or of CICERO from their Greek or Latin into his own English. The one thing that he needs most is a full supply of accurately-chosen English words. Yet we teachers while we struggle on year after year to make our boys translate, take no means at all, for the most part, to furnish their minds with the English words and English constructions that they need for their translation. We learn from our Bible to hate those taskmasters of Egypt that tried to scourge the children of Israel into making bricks without straw. Some of us, indeed, may have done away

with the scourging, but the spirit of our tyranny is as cruel and as stupid as the Egyptians, when we set an illiterate boy to translating a Greek sentence without giving him a knowledge of English words. The vocabulary of an average boy, the stock of good and true words that he can use familiarly and correctly, is amazingly small. A few hundred words largely slang, caught up from the common talk of a vulgar and illiterate home, or from the jargon of the street, comprise the names of all the things, of all the actions, of all the relations that he knows. No man that is familiar with the talk of boys, with their endless repetitions of set words and phrases, with the absurd sameness and slanginess of their sentences, can fail to have noticed the scantness of their stock of words. How then is it possible for the boy's mind, thus poorly supplied with his own language's wealth of vocabulary, to take in the thought of the Greek writer that lords it over a hundred thousand words? How can he, even if he could understand the Greek's thought, put that thought by any process of translation into English dress? Here then, more than anywhere else, the young student of Latin or Greek needs the help that comes from the careful and prolonged preliminary study of his mother-tongue. Only by wide and varied reading of English books, can the English-speaking child gain the use of a wide and varied vocabulary. Hence a large part of the early years of education should be spent by every child in the careful and thoughtful reading, under the teacher's supervision, of those great English books, especially SHAKSPEARE, that enlarge and strengthen the young mind by continual increments of words and ideas. Only after this has been done is it worth while to undertake the study of the Greek or Roman literatures. For in acquiring the ancient literature or language nothing can be done without the process of translation; and the process of translation is itself impossible, for the untrained and ignorant mind that cannot handle the resources of its mother-tongue. Hence it is improper and preposterous for a child to begin the study of Latin or Greek or any foreign language, till he is familiar by reading and composition with the word-supply of his own tongue, and capable of putting the thought of the ancient writers into decent English form.

As a trusty means of quickening the child's mastery over the meaning and form of English words, I may mention here, from my own experience, the study of English etymology, that is, the formation of English words, by means of a few suffixes and prefixes of easily learned significance, out of a few hundred roots of invariable meaning. A very few lessons will serve to impress upon the child's mind the form and power of the leading suffixes and prefixes that make up our language; and these formation syllables can be so arranged for teaching as to show not only the meaning of the derived word but also its history and origin, Teutonic, Latin, or French. By the use of this system, continually applied and tested in reading, thousands of words which otherwise would have to be learned, one by one, with infinite toil of memory, may be made transparent to the child's mind, living elements forever in the processes of his thought. Instead of learning words singly, by single and disjointed acts of unaided memory, the mind if thus trained in the elements of etymology, may deal with words by classification, and store away for use amazing

masses of richly clustered vocabulary. But the benefits of this habit of closely watching the formation of words are not restricted to the study of the English itself. So soon as the boy begins the study of Greek, for example, or of any foreign language, and has to deal with the overwhelming riches of the foreign word-supply, his knowledge of the laws of word-formation, his experience of the power of suffixes and prefixes in varying, without effacing the significance of the stem, come in to aid his memory in its toil of acquisition. In Greek, especially, I have noticed that the vocabulary is so enormous and so difficult that the memory if not reinforced by the laws of etymology and word-formation is almost sure in the great majority of cases to break down. In consequence of this the power of reading freely and enjoying the literature, which is of course the only rational aim of Greek study, is attained [probably, by not one man in a thousand of those that study the language. Hence, if we can help our boys to understand how words are formed, if we can train their minds by etymology to analyze and classify and remember the significance of words, we are helping them to overcome the most serious difficulty upon their path. As in the old romances, the Greek lexicon is the hideous and dangerous dragon that guards the treasures of Greek literature. Before we send our boys out to seize the golden fleece of Hellenic thought, we should teach them how to vanquish those monsters of Greek Lexicography that bar their access to the treasure.

But when I insist upon the study of English as the only adequate preparation for the study of Greek and Latin, I mean by English study something far other, something far higher, and more generous than the ordinary cram of so-called English school grammars. Our studies in philology will never bear their full fruit, our schools and colleges and universities will never do for our people what they ought, till the study of English is carried far beyond its ordinary bounds, and made to yield, not only a scientific knowledge of the English language but also a practical familiarity with the use of it. I wish therefore to give in outline that course of English study which should be insisted on as an introduction to the study of Greek and Latin.

1st. The parts of speech should be made thoroughly familiar, not by cramming definitions, but by practice in reading. The child should be trained to recognize the function of each word in the sentence, and to identify the parts of speech with rapid and infallible precision. Here especially the distinction between the adverb and the conjunction, so enormously important in the construction of sentences, should be thoroughly taught.

2d. The inflection of the English language should be made entirely familiar. Especially the true inflections of the English verb, with entire rejection of all compound tenses. Potential moods, &c., should be thoroughly taught.

3d. A select course of great English writings should be carefully read so as to widen and deepen the child's store of good English vocabulary. This is by far the most important part of the English education. The teacher should work with the class, guiding their pronunciation, stimulating their intelligence, and explaining the significance of unfamiliar words, and the bearing of illustrations and allusions.

4th. The principles of word-formation should be carefully taught, and then copiously illustrated in reading. The force of the suffixes and prefixes and the meaning and origin of the roots should be made familiar to the mind. The mental habit of arriving at the significance of words by the analysis of their form should be elaborately cultivated.

5th. The logical analysis of sentences should be made clear and easy to the mind. This is a discipline of far-reaching value, not only for the English language itself, but especially for the easy acquisition of the classical languages. The child who is to study language at all, must be trained to understand the relations of words in the simple sentence, and the relations of clauses in complex sentences.

6th. Our pupils' knowledge of the English language, their mastery over both the vocabulary and the constructions of the mother-tongue ought to be tested and confirmed by constant practice in writing English.

In these ways the method of philological training, as marked out for us by the experience of the world and by the principles of mental science, may be seen to lie before us clear and straight. So soon as the child can read, let his philological education begin by copious reading from the great authors of his own language. As he reads on, let the elements of all grammatical knowledge, his practical familiarity with the parts of speech and with the inflections of the English language, be worked into his mind. As he reads on, let the wealth of the English vocabulary, as used both in prose and in poetry, be infused into him, and let his ability to deal with language be strengthened by frequent compositions on subjects that he understands. As he reads on let the structure of English words, the simple elements of etymology, be made clear to him by direct teaching and by examples. As he reads on, let the great science of the logical analysis be unfolded before him; let him see how word combines with word to form the simple predication, how clause modifies clause to build up the complex unity of thought. Then when he has become familiar with these things, when he can use words with understanding of their force, and find his way securely through all the tangled meshes of construction, then, if you choose, let him that, in good King ALFRED's words, wishes to know more, begin the study of the Latin or the Greek. For the mind thus prepared, each step in the new language will be easy and familiar. The rich inflections of the Latin or the Greek will still be, indeed, a severe strain upon the memory; but each inflection, either by its agreements or by its differences, will remind the learner of some fact that he knows already in his English. When, however, he begins to read the Greek or Latin authors, each rule of the foreign syntax will come before his mind as an easy and transparent application of one of those laws of thought that he knows already by the logical analysis of the English sentence. Even the strange word-masses of the foreign vocabulary will rapidly break into their elements before his trained power of observation; they will reveal their meaning to his mind, and record themselves as living facts in his disciplined memory.

CONSTITUTION
OF THE
NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

PREAMBLE.

To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States, we whose names are subjoined, agree to adopt the following

CONSTITUTION;
[As Amended July 11, 1876.]

ARTICLE I.—NAME.

This Association shall be styled the National Educational Association.

ARTICLE II.—DEPARTMENTS.

§ 1. It shall consist of five Departments: the first, of School Superintendence; the second, of Normal Schools; the third of Elementary Schools; and the fourth, of Higher Instruction, and the fifth of Industrial Education.

§ 2. Other Departments may be organized in the manner prescribed in this Constitution.

ARTICLE III.—MEMBERSHIP.

§ 1. Any person in any way connected with the work of education shall be eligible to membership. Such person may become a member of this Association by paying two dollars and signing this Constitution; and he may continue a member by the payment of an annual fee of two dollars. On his neglect to pay such fee, his membership shall cease.

§ 2. Each department may prescribe its own conditions of membership, provided that no person be admitted to such membership who is not a member of the general Association.

§ 3. Any person eligible to membership may become a life-member by paying at once, twenty dollars.

ARTICLE IV.—OFFICERS.

§ 1. The officers of this Association shall be a President, twelve Vice-Presidents, a Secretary, a Treasurer, one Counsellor for each State, District, or Territory represented in the Association, and the officers charged with the administration of their respective departments. Any friend of

education may become a life-director by the donation of one hundred dollars to the Association at one time, either by himself or in his behalf.

§ 2. The President, Vice-Presidents, Secretary, Treasurer, Counsellors, Life-Directors, and presiding officers of their respective departments, shall constitute the Board of Directors, and, as such, shall have power to appoint such committees from their own number as they shall deem expedient.

§ 3. The elective officers of the Association shall be chosen by ballot, unless otherwise ordered, on the second day of each annual session, a majority of the votes cast being necessary for a choice. They shall continue in office until the close of the annual session subsequent to their election, and until their successors are chosen.

§ 4. Each department shall be administered by a President, Vice-President, Secretary, and such other officers as it shall deem necessary to conduct its affairs.

§ 5. The President shall preside at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors, and shall perform the duties usually devolving upon a presiding officer. In his absence, the First Vice-President in order who is present shall preside; and in the absence of all the Vice-Presidents, a *pro tempore* Chairman shall be appointed on nomination, the Secretary putting the question.

§ 6. The Secretary shall keep a full and accurate report of the proceedings of the general meetings of the Association and all meetings of the Board of Directors; and shall conduct such correspondence as the Directors may assign; and shall have his records present at all meetings of the Association and of the Board of Directors. The Secretary of each department shall, in addition to performing the duties usually pertaining to his office, keep a list of the members of his department.

§ 7. The Treasurer shall receive and hold in safe keeping all moneys paid to the Association, shall expend the same only upon the order of the Committee of Finance; shall keep an exact account of his receipts and expenditures, with vouchers for the latter, which accounts he shall render to the Board of Directors prior to each regular meeting of the Association, and shall also present an abstract thereof to the Association. He shall give bonds for the faithful discharge of his duties as may be required by the Board of Directors.

§ 8. The Board of Directors shall have power to fill all vacancies in their own body; shall have in charge the general interests of the Association; shall make all necessary arrangements for its meetings; and shall do all in their power to make it a useful and honorable institution. Upon the written application of twenty members of the Association for permission to establish a new department, they may grant such permission. Such new department shall in all respects be entitled to the same rights and privileges as the others. The formation of such department shall in effect be a sufficient amendment to this Constitution for the insertion of its name in Article II., and the Secretary shall make the necessary alterations.

§ 9. The Board of Directors shall appoint three trustees into whose hands shall be placed for safe keeping and investment, all funds which

the Association may receive from the creation of life-directorships, or from donations, unless the donors shall specify other purposes for which they may be used. The income of such funds so invested shall be used exclusively in defraying the expense of publishing the annual volume of the Association, unless the donors shall specify otherwise. The Board of Directors shall require such trustees to give to the Association their joint bond in a sum equal to twice the amount of such trust fund as may be in their hands.

ARTICLE V.—MEETINGS.

§ 1. The annual meeting of the Association shall be held at such time and place as shall be determined by the Board of Directors.

§ 2. Special meetings may be called by the President at the request of five Directors.

§ 3. Any department of the Association may hold a special meeting at such time and place as by its own regulations it shall appoint.

§ 4. The Board of Directors shall hold their regular meetings at the place, and not less than two hours before the assembling of the Association.

§ 5. Special meetings may be held at such other times and places as the Board or the President shall determine.

§ 6. Each new Board shall organize on the day of its election. At its first meeting a Committee on Publication shall be appointed, which shall consist of the Secretary of the Association for the previous year, and one member from each department.

ARTICLE VI.—BY-LAWS.

By-Laws not inconsistent with this Constitution may be adopted by a two-thirds vote of the Association.

ARTICLE VII.—AMENDMENTS.

This Constitution may be altered or amended at a regular meeting by the unanimous vote of the members present or by a two-thirds vote of the members present, provided that the alteration or amendment has been substantially proposed in writing at a previous regular meeting.

BY-LAWS.

1. At each regular meeting of the Association there shall be appointed a Committee on Nominations; one on Honorary Members; and one on Resolutions.

2. The President, First Vice-President, and Secretary, shall constitute a Committee on Finance.

3. Each paying member of the Association shall be entitled to a copy of its proceedings.

4. No paper, lecture, or address, shall be read before the Association or any of its departments, in the absence of its author, nor shall any such paper, lecture, or address, be published in the volume of proceedings without the consent of the Association in each case.

MEMBERSHIP
OF THE
NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

LIST OF LIFE-DIRECTORS.

BALTIMORE, 1876.

Phelps, W. F., Whitewater, Wis., White, S. H., Peoria, Ill.

LOUISVILLE, 1877.

Marshall, T. Marcellus, Glenville, W. Va.

LIST OF LIFE-MEMBERS.

[Where the addresses in this list differ from those given last year the changes have been made because the Secretary has either direct or indirect knowledge of a change of location. The addresses marked with an asterisk were those given at the time the persons became life-members, and the Secretary is unable to say whether or not they remain correct.]

OGDENSBURG, 1864.

Barnard, Henry, Hartford, Conn.,	Hagar, D. B., Salem, Mass.,
Bradley, P., Lyons,* N. Y.,	Pennell, C. S., St. Louis, Mo.,
Cruikshank, J., Brooklyn, N. Y.,	Richards, Z., Washington, D. C.,
Danforth, Edward, Elmira, N. Y.,	Wells,† D. F., Iowa City, Iowa,
Eberhart, J. F., Chicago,* Ill.,	White, S. H., Peoria, Ill.

HARRISBURG, 1865.

Greene, S. S., Providence, R. I.,	Sheldon, W. E., Boston, Mass.,
Hartshorn, O. N., Mt. Union, Ohio,	Wickersham, J. P., Harrisburg, Pa.
Ingram, S. D., Harrisburg,* Pa.,	

INDIANAPOLIS, 1866.

Curran, U. T., Sandusky, Ohio,	Mayhew, Ira, Albion, Mich.,
McRae, H. S., Muncie, Ind.,	Norris,† John A., Columbus, Ohio.

† Deceased.

CLEVELAND, 1870.

Arey, Oliver, Buffalo, N. Y.,	Williams, Mrs. Delia A., Delaware, O.,
Allen, Ira W., Lake Forest,* Ill.,	Manly, R. M., Richmond,* Va.,
Cole, W. H., Marysville, Ohio,	M'Guffey,† W. H. University of Va.,
Crosby, Wm. E., Davenport, Iowa,	Phelps, W. F., Whitewater, Wis.,
Hoyt, J. W., Madison, Wis.,	Read, Daniel, Columbia,* Mo.,
Hoose, J. H., Cortland, N. Y.,	Rickoff, A. J., Cleveland, Ohio,
Hobbs, B. C., Annapolis, Ind.,	Stone, Mrs. M. A., New Milford, Ct.,
Heywood, C. W., Cleveland, Ohio,	Tourjee, Eben, Boston, Mass.,
Holden, L. E., Cleveland, Ohio,	Wilcox, M. C., Boston,* Mass.,
Jones, D.W., Boston (Highl's), Mass.,	White, E. E., Lafayette, Ind.

ST. LOUIS, 1871.

Anderson, John J., New York, N. Y., Box 1619.

BOSTON, 1872.

Stone, E. M., Providence,* R. I.

ELMIRA, 1873.

Haines, Miss Henritta B., 10 Gramercy Park,* N. Y.

BALTIMORE, 1876.

Armstrong, Allen, Sioux City, Iowa,	Marshall, T. M., Glenville, W. Va.,
Beals, S. D., Omaha, Nebraska,	Nelson, C. K., Annapolis, Md.,
Bell, W. A., Indianapolis, Ind.,	Newell, M. A., Baltimore, Md.,
Brooks, Edward, Millersville, Pa.,	Richmond, Sarah E., Baltimore, Md.,
<i>Cruikshank, Jas.</i> , Brooklyn, N. Y.,	Rollins, Jas. S., Columbia, Mo.,
Dorna, G. Videla, New York,* N. Y.,	Rounds, C. C., Farmington, Me.,
Forbes, Alex., Cleveland, Ohio,	Schmitz, J. Adolph, Wooster, Ohio,
Hancock, John, Dayton, Ohio,	Stevens, M. C., Beloit, Ohio,
Harris, W. T., St. Louis, Mo.,	<i>Stone, Mrs. M. A.</i> , New Milford, Conn.,
Henkle, W. D., Salem, Ohio,	Thompson, L. S., Lafayette, Ind.,
Laws, S. S., Columbia, Mo.,	<i>White, E. E.</i> , Lafayette, Ind.,
Malone, J. R., Dallas, Texas,	<i>Wickersham, J. P.</i> , Harrisburg, Pa.

LOUISVILLE, KY.

Bartholomew, W. H., Louisville, Ky.,	Mills, Caleb, Crawfordsville, Ind.,
Burleson, R. C., Waco, Texas,	Monsarrat, Mrs. L. L., Louisville, Ky.,
Fish, J. M., Little Rock, Ark.,	Ralfus, Miss Anna I., Louisville, Ky.,
Franklin, M. B., Grapevine, Texas,	Smart, J. H., Indianapolis, Ind.,
Harley, J. M., Tishomingo, Ind. Ter.,	Soldan, Louis, St. Louis, Mo.

Those names printed in *Italics* are of persons who previously became life-members when the fee was \$10, but who chose to pay \$10 more and become life-members under the new fee of \$20.

† Deceased.

NAMES ENROLLED AT LOUISVILLE, ARRANGED BY STATES.

ARKANSAS.

J. C. Corbin, Pine Bluff, George W. Hill, Little Rock.
J. M. Fish, Little Rock,

CONNECTICUT.

Mrs. M. A. Stone, New Milford.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

James Corridon, Washington, Z. Richards, Washington,
A. Hart, Washington, J. Ormond Wilson, Washington.

ILLINOIS.

Miss W. J. Bassett, Chicago, Amos Stevens, Chicago,
Abram Brown, Chicago, D. B. Veasey, Chicago,
J. L. Pickard, Chicago, S. H. White, Peoria.

INDIANA.

M. A. Barnett, Elkhart,	W. J. Pruner, Hartsville.
D. D. Blakeman, Delphi,	John A. Ramsey, Elliottsville,
John M. Bloss, Evansville,	J. J. Riley, Hartsville,
George P. Brown, Indianapolis,	Mrs. M. J. Riley, Hartsville,
John W. Caldwell, Seymour,	J. B. Roberts, Indianapolis,
Bruce Carr, Bedford,	H. L. Rust, Indianapolis,
Henry B. Carrington, Crawfordsville,	Levi G. Saffer, Muncie,
Miss N. Cropsey, Indianapolis,	A. C. Shortridge, Indianapolis,
Miss S. H. Hoadley, Haskell,	J. H. Smart, Indianapolis,
Miss Clara J. Loomis, Jeffersonville,	J. S. Smith, Indianapolis,
Alexander Martin, Greencastle,	J. T. Smith, New Albany,
Hamilton S. McRae, Muncie,	Robert A. Sturgis, Charlestown,
Mrs. R. A. Moffitt, Rushville,	L. S. Thompson, Lafayette,
Miss Ruth Morris, Richmond,	W. H. Wiley, Terre Haute,
Lemuel Moss, Bloomington,	Mrs. W. H. Wiley, Terre Haute,
J. M. Olcott, Indianapolis,	Wm. S. Wood, New Albany.

INDIAN TERRITORY.

J. M. Harley, Tishomingo.

IOWA.

A. Armstrong, Sioux City, Cornelius Narvesen, Decorah,
H. W. Myers, Creston, D. S. Wright, Cedar Falls.

KENTUCKY.

Robert D. Allen, Farmdale,	W. H. Lockhart, Paris,
P. G. Arnold, Cloverport,	A. S. Loventhal, Washington County,
Miss Belle Ballou, Georgetown,	S. T. Lowry, Owensboro,
W. H. Bartholomew, Louisville,	S. P. Lucy, Midway,
J. N. Bayne, Corydon,	W. M. Marriner, Louisville,
Ormond Beatty, Danville,	L. G. Marshall, Cynthiana,
H. R. Blaisdelle, Maysville,	J. M. Maxwell, Louisville,
Mrs. Sallie E. Board, Louisville,	W. N. McDonald, Louisville,
J. B. Bowman, Lexington,	Mrs. L. L. Monsarrat, Louisville,
Mrs. Mollie Bradshaw, Louisville,	Miss Ruth A. Murray, Louisville,
S. P. Browder, Frankfort,	Miss Lou Myers, Louisville,
J. R. Buchanan, Louisville,	J. D. Pickett, Lexington,
G. A. Chase, Louisville,	Philip A. Pointer, Louisville,
J. W. Chenault, Louisville,	Miss Anna F. Ralfus, Louisville,
W. O. Cross, Louisville,	Miss Theresa Rockwell, Louisville,
G. A. Cabbage, Jr., Litchfield,	Hiram Roberts, Louisville,
D. C. Culley, Paducah,	J. J. Rucker, Georgetown,
W. J. Davis, Louisville,	Miss Annie L. Simpson, Louisville,
J. R. Day, Millersburg,	T. J. Smith, Bowling Green,
G. M. Edgar, Paris,	A. B. Stark, Russellville,
W. J. Finley, Morgantown,	Wm. Steffen, Louisville,
Henry J. Fusche, Louisville,	L. G. Stevens, Louisville,
H. A. M. Henderson, Frankfort,	Mrs. F. M. Summers, Louisville,
W. J. Hinley, Morgantown,	Miss M. S. Tipton, Paris,
R. S. Hitchcock, Danville,	T. C. H. Vance, Carlisle,
B. S. Hunting, Berea,	Miss Kate Weber, Louisville,
B. B. Huntoon, Louisville,	John A. Williams, Harrodsburg.
L. M. La Rue, Christiansburg,	

MARYLAND.

G. G. McKay, Cumberland,	Sarah E. Richmond, Baltimore,
M. A. Newell, Baltimore,	G. L. Smith, Baltimore.
A. Reichenbach, Cumberland,	

MASSACHUSETTS.

F. B. Ginn, Boston,	J. D. Runkle, Boston.
---------------------	-----------------------

MICHIGAN.

Mrs. Laura Adams, Detroit.

MINNESOTA.

Chas. Y. Lacy, Minneapolis.

MISSISSIPPI.

J. G. Du Pree, Verona,	J. A. Rainwater, Sardis.
------------------------	--------------------------

MISSOURI.

Grace C. Bibb, St. Louis,	R. D. Shannon, Jefferson City,
Mrs. C. J. Hildreth, St. Louis,	Louis Soldan, St. Louis.
B. S. Newland, Columbia,	

NEBRASKA.

S. R. Thompson, Lincoln.

NEW JERSEY.

Mrs. Georgiana Van Akin, Jersey City.

NEW YORK.

Miss Emma W. Crain, Catskill,

John Kraus, New York,

Miss Nancy Elliot, New York,

Maria Kraus-Boelte, New York.

NORTH CAROLINA.

John R. Sampson, Davidson College.

OHIO.

Israel W. Andrews, Marietta,

W. D. Henkle, Salem,

Chas. E. Blacker, South Bloomfield, Joshua Nickerson, Cincinnati,

E. W. Coy, Cincinnati,

W. H. Scott, Athens,

E. H. Cook, Columbus,

R. W. Stevenson, Columbus,

Solomon Day, Dayton,

C. S. Smart, Columbus,

Miss M. V. Friend, Cleveland,

Eli T. Tappan, Gambier,

John Hancock, Dayton,

R. B. Warder, Cincinnati.

PENNSYLVANIA.

W. H. G. Adney, Washington,

J. P. Wickersham, Harrisburgh.

TENNESSEE.

James T. Anderson, Nashville,

Edw. S. Joynes, Nashville,

Wm. Le Roy Broun, Nashville,

Mrs. Henrietta E. Loudon, Nashville,

W. R. Garrett, Nashville,

John W. Shipp, Nashville,

Caskie Harrison, Sewanee,

W. R. Webb, Culleoka.

TEXAS.

Albert Boggess, Waco,

M. B. Franklin, Grapevine,

Rufus C. Burleson, Waco,

Alex. Hogg, College Station.

VIRGINIA.

Thos. R. Price, University of Va.

WEST VIRGINIA.

T. Marcellus Marshall, Glenville,

W. K. Pendleton, Wheeling.

WISCONSIN.

W. F. Phelps, Whitewater.

NAMES ENROLLED AT LOUISVILLE,
ARRANGED ALPHABETICALLY.**A.**

Adams, Mrs. Laura, Mich.,

Andrews, Israel W., Ohio.,

Adney, W. H. G., Pa.,

Armstrong, A., Iowa,

Allen, Robert D., Ky.,

Arnold, T. G., Ky.

Anderson, Jas. T., Tenn.,

Ballou, Miss Belle, Ky.,
Barnett, M. A., Indiana,
Bartholomew, W. H., Ky.,
Bassett, Miss W. J., Ill.,
Bayne, J. N., Ky.,
Beatty, Ormond, Ky.,
Bibb, Grace C., Mo.,
Blacker, Charles E., Ohio,
Blaisdelle, H. R., Ky.,
Blakeman, D. D., Ind.,
Bloss, John M., Ind.,

Caldwell, John W., Ind.,
Carr, Bruce, Ind.,
Carrington, Henry B., Ind.,
Chase, G. A., Ky.,
Chenault, J. W., Ky.,
Cook, E. H., Ohio,
Corbin, J. C., Arkansas,

Davis, W. J., Ky.,
Day, J.-R., Ky.,

Edgar, G. M., Ky.,

Finley, W. J., Ky.,
Fish, J. M., Ark.,
Fusche, Henry J., Ky.,

Garrett, W. R., Tenn.,

Hancock, John, Ohio,
Harley, J. M., Indian Ty.,
Harrison, Caskie, Tenn.,
Hart, A., D. C.,
Henkle, W. D., Ohio,
Henderson, H. A. M., Ky.,
Hildreth, Mrs. C. J., Mo.,

Joynes, Edward S., Tenn.

Kraus, John, N. Y.,

B.

Board, Mrs. Sallie E., Ky.,
Boggers, Albert, Texas,
Bowman, J. B., Ky.,
Bradshaw, Mrs. Mollie, Ky.,
Brown, Abram, Ill.,
Brown, George P., Ind.,
Broun, W. Le Roy, Tenn.,
Browder, S. P., Ky.,
Buchanan, J. R., Ky.,
Burleson, Rufus C., Texas.

C.

Corridon, James, D. C.,
Coy, E. W., Ohio,
Crain, Miss Emma W., N. Y.,
Cropsey, Miss N., Ind.,
Cross, W. O., Ky.,
Cubbage, G. A., Jr., Ky.,
Culley, D. C., Ky.

D.

Day, Solomon, Ohio,
Du Pree, J. G., Miss.

E.

Elliott, Miss Nancy, N. Y.

F.

Franklin, M. B., Texas,
Friend, Miss M. V., Ohio.

G.

Ginn, F. B., Mass.

H.

Hill, George W., Ark.,
Hinley, W. J., Ky.,
Hitchcock, R. S., Ky.,
Hoadley, Miss S. H., Ind.,
Hogg, Alexander, Texas,
Hunting, B. S., Ky.,
Huntoon, B. B., Ky.

J.

K.

Kraus-Boelte, Maria, N. Y.

Lacy, Charles Y., Minn.,
La Rue, L. M., Ky.,
Lockhart, W. H., Ky.,
Loomis, Miss Clara J., Ind.,

Marriner, W. M., Ky.,
Marshall, L. G., Ky.,
Marshall, T. M., W. Va.,
Martin, Alexander, Ind.,
Maxwell, J. M., Ky.,
McDonald, W. N., Ky.,
McKay, G. G., Md.,
McRae, H. S., Ind.,

Narveson, Cornelius, Iowa,
Newell, M. A., Md.,

Olcott, J. M., Ind.

Pendleton, W. K., West Va.,
Phelps, W. F., Wis.,
Pickard, J. L., Ill.,
Pickett, J. D., Ky.,

Rainwater, J. A., Miss.,
Ralfus Anna I., Ky.,
Ramsay, John A., Ind.,
Reichenbach, A., Md.,
Richards, Z., D. C.,
Richmond, Sarah E.,
Riley, J. J., Ind.,

Saffer, Levi G., Ind.,
Sampson, John R., N. C.,
Scott, W. H., Ohio,
Shannon, R. D., Mo.,
Shipp, John W., Tenn.,
Shortridge, A. C., Ind.,
Simpson, Miss Annie L., Ky.,
Smart, C. S., Ohio,
Smart, J. H., Ind.,
Smith, G. L., Md.,
Smith, J. S., Ind.,

L.

Louden, Mrs. Henrietta E., Tenn.,
Loventhal, A. S., Ky.,
Lowry, S. T., Ky.,
Lucy, S. P., Ky.

M.

Moffitt, Mrs. R. A., Ind.,
Monsarrat, Mrs. L. L., Ky.
Moss, Lemuel, Ind.,
Morris, Miss Ruth, Ind.,
Murray, Miss Ruth A., Ky.,
Myers, H. W., Iowa,
Myers, Miss Lou, Ky.

N.

Newland, B. S., Mo.,
Nickerson, Joshua, Ohio.

O.

P.

Pointer, P. A., Ky.,
Price, Thomas R., Va.,
Pruner, W. J., Ind.

R.

Riley, Mrs. M. J., Ind.,
Rockwell, Miss T., Ky.,
Roberts, Hiram, Ky.,
Roberts, J. B., Ind.,
Rucker, J. J., Ky.,
Runkle, J. D., Mass.,
Rust, H. L., Ind.

S.

Smith, J. T., Ind.,
Smith, T. J., Ky.,
Soldan, Louis, Mo.,
Stark, A. B., Ky.,
Steffen, William, Ky.,
Stevens, Amos, Ill.,
Stevens, L. G., Ky.,
Stevenson, R. W., Ohio,
Stone, Mrs. M. A., Conn.,
Sturgis, R. A., Ind.,
Summers, Miss F. M., Ky.

T.

Tappan, Eli T., Ohio,
Thompson, L. S., Ind.,

Thompson, S. R., Neb.,
Tipton, Miss M. S., Ky.

V.

Vance, T. C. H., Ky.,
Van Akin, Mrs. Georgiana, N. J.,

Veasey, D. B., Ill.

W.

Warder, R. B., Ohio,
Webb, W. R., Tenn.,
Weber, Miss Kate, Ky.,
White, S. H., Ill.,
Wickersham, J. P., Penn.,
Wiley, W. H., Ind.,

Wiley, Mrs. W. H., Ind.,
Williams, J. A., Ky.,
Wilson, J. Ormond, D. C.,
Wood, W. S., Ind.,
Wright, D. S., Iowa.

NOTE.—The following named persons sent their annual membership fees to the Secretary after the Louisville meeting:

Kate S. French, 21 Broadway, Baltimore, Md.

Sadie L. Gillman, 630 Lexington Street, Baltimore, Md.

BOARD OF DIRECTORS.

Proceedings for 1877.

OLD BOARD.

The Board met August 13, at 8 P. M., and appointed JOHN HANCOCK, W. F. PHELPS, and E. S. JOYNES, an auditing committee, to audit the accounts of the Treasurer and Secretary. In order to attend an evening session of the Kentucky Teachers' Association, the Board adjourned to meet at 8½ A. M., August 14, 1877.

Board met at 8½ A. M., August 14, 1877, pursuant to adjournment. The Auditing Committee reported the accounts of the Treasurer and Secretary correct. The Secretary was, on motion, directed to report the accounts to the Association.

It was agreed to call the Department of Elementary Schools together at 2½ P. M., and the Department of Higher Instruction immediately after the adjournment of the General Association.

On motion of E. S. JOYNES a Committee on Programme was appointed, to whom should be referred all papers, letters, etc., not in the programme, and that the President of the Association be made chairman of the committee.

M. A. NEWELL, E. S. JOYNES, and I. W. ANDREWS, were appointed the committee.

Adjourned.

NEW BOARD.

The Board met at Liederkrantz Hall at 10:45 P. M., August 15, 1877.

On motion of E. T. TAPPAN the Secretary was authorized to appoint the Publication Committee.

On motion of S. H. WHITE the Publication Committee was directed to have the volume ready by Dec. 1, 1877.

On motion of J. P. WICKERSHAM the Secretary was directed to present, to-morrow, to the General Association, the subject of life-membership, and the sale of volumes of the Proceedings.

W. H. BARTHOLOMEW offered to the Association, in behalf of the Teachers of Louisville, Sixty Dollars, which was the amount they had raised to appropriate for a boat ride on the Ohio, which ride the Association had declined on account of want of time.

On motion of W. D. HENKLE the sixty dollars were accepted with thanks.

On motion of W. F. PHELPS the President was authorized to appoint a Transportation Committee when the place of meeting shall be determined.

Different places were placed in nomination for the next place of meeting. Several formal invitations were presented by J. P. WICKERSHAM for Philadelphia, and R. D. SHANNON urged St. Louis. An informal vote of those present showed 14 for St. Louis and 9 for Philadelphia.

On motion the final decision of the question as to place of meeting was left with the Executive Committee.

On motion of E. T. TAPPAN the Executive Committee was requested to fix the time of meeting in the week in which the first of August shall come.

The following resolutions, offered by E. T. TAPPAN, were adopted :

Resolved, That the Committee on Publication be instructed, in cases where the papers presented at this and future meetings of the Association shall exceed the limit of forty minutes in the reading, as heretofore prescribed, to omit in the publication so much of each of said papers as may be necessary to bring them within such limits.

Resolved, That the President be authorized to take steps for the incorporation of the Association, or of the Trustees of its permanent funds, in such form and by such authority as he may, with competent legal advice, find best suited for our efficient work.

Resolved, That the President be authorized to appoint local committees in the various cities to solicit proper persons to become life-members or life-directors of this Association.

Adjourned.

The Board met in Liederkrantz Hall, at 1 P. M., August 16, 1877.

On motion of E. T. TAPPAN the Board proceeded to elect three Trustees as required by the Constitution.

On motion of E. T. TAPPAN, O. J. WILSON, JOHN HANCOCK, and AARON F. PERRY, were chosen Trustees.

On motion of Dr. LEMUEL MOSS the whole subject of publication be left to the Publication Committee.

On motion of E. T. Tappan the President was directed to inform all persons who shall hereafter read papers before the General Association or any of its Departments that such papers shall be read in person, that no papers previously used will be accepted, and that no papers shall exceed forty minutes in the reading.

Adjourned.

TREASURER'S REPORT.

1877.		Dr.
August 13.	To balance from last Treasurer.....	\$ 58 25
" "	" Membership Fees, 1876.....	14 00
" "	" Life-Membership Fees, 1876.....	340 00
" "	" Volumes of Proceedings sold.....	466 00
" "	" Amount received from other sources.....	33 10
		<hr/> \$911 35

CONTRA.

1877.		Cr.
August 13.	By Expressage	\$ 5 05
" "	" Printing	31 75
" "	" Miscellaneous expenses.....	7 05
" "	" Cash paid W. D. HENKLE for miscellaneous expenses and on account of Publication Committee	867 50
		<hr/> \$911 35

J. ORMOND WILSON, Treasurer.

STATEMENT

*In Detail of Amounts Received by J. Ormond Wilson, Treasurer of the
National Educational Association.*

1876.		
Aug. 14.	F. Buisson, 166 Boulevard du Montparnasse, Paris.....	\$ 2 00
Sept. 28.	B. Maurice, by M. A. Newell, Baltimore, Md.....	2 00
Dec. 15.	Elizabeth R. Hill, North Brookfield, Mass.....	2 00
Dec. 26.	Hon. John Eaton, volumes of Proceedings.....	7 00
1877.		
Jan. 3.	Dr. John Hancock, Dayton, O., balance due for Life-Membership.....	18 00
Jan. 17.	1 Vol. Proceedings, 1875, Board of Education, Washington, D. C.....	1 50
Jan. 24.	Wm. F. Phelps on account of Life-Membership.....	10 00
Jan. 24.	A. P. Marble, late Treasurer.....	58 25
Feb. 1.	1 Vol. Proceedings, 1876, Board of Education, Washington, D. C.....	2 00
Feb. 5.	20 Vols. Proceedings, 1876, S. H. White.....	20 00
Feb. 6.	2 Vols. Proceedings, 1876, Cushings & Bailey, Baltimore, Md.....	4 00
Feb. 10.	20 Vols. Proceedings, 1876, Hon. B. G. Northrop, Sec. State Board of Education, Conn.....	25 00
Feb. 10.	10 Vols. Proceedings, 1876, Hon. B. Mallon, Sup't Public Schools, Atlanta.....	12 50
Feb. 20.	2 Vols. Proceedings, 1876, Board of Education, Washington, D. C.....	4 00
Feb. 23.	6 Vols. Proceedings, 1871 to '76 inclusive, Peabody Library Association, Georgetown, D. C.....	10 00
Feb. 24.	10 Vols. Proceedings, 1876, U. S. Bureau of Education...	12 50
Feb. 26.	1 Vol. Proceedings, 1876, H. W. Myers, Creston, Io....	2 00
March 12.	Miss S. E. Richmond, Baltimore, Md., balance due for Life-Membership.....	18 00
March 12.	Hon. M. A. Newell, Baltimore, Md., balance due for Life-Membership.....	18 00
March 12.	25 Vols. Proceedings, 1876, Hon. M. A. Newell, Principal State Normal School, Baltimore, Md.....	31 25
March 21.	1 Vol. Proceedings, 1875, W. H. Wiley, Sup't Schools, Terre Haute.....	1 50
April 13.	1 Vol. Proceedings, 1876, Mr. E. Steiger, New York,...	2 00
April 18.	1 Vol. Proceedings, 1872, Hon. Alonzo Abernethy,....	1 75
May 26.	1 Vol. each, Proceedings 1875, 1866, B. W. Passmon,...	3 50
July 12.	1 Vol. Proceedings, 1876, A. P. Stone, Esq.....	2 00
Total.....		\$270 75
Deduct payments.....		43 85

Balance on hand..... \$226 90

*Statement in Detail of Payments made by J. Ormond Wilson, Treasurer of the
National Educational Association*

Aug. 3, 1876.	Expressage of record books.....	\$ 0 80—no voucher.	
July 29, "	Advertisement.....	1 80—voucher No. 1.	
Aug. 24, "	Expressage of volumes of Proceedings from Baltimore, &c.....	1 90—	" " 2.
Dec. 26, "	Expressage, J. H. Brennenman.....	2 35—	" " 3.
Jan. 17, 1877.	Tin case for Medal and Diploma, Santiago.....	0 75—	" " 4.
Jan. 24, "	D. Sinclair & Co., printing.....	31 75—	" " 5.
Jan. 24, "	Paid on account of A. P. Marble, late Treasurer.....	4 50—	" " 6.

Total \$43 85

VOLUMES OF PROCEEDINGS UNSOLD,
IN THE CUSTODY OF THE TREASURER.

Proceedings of	1858,	23 volumes	Price per volume,	\$.50
"	"	1859, 25	"	.50
"	"	1860, 14	"	.50
"	"	1863, 30	"	.50
"	"	1865, 131	"	.50
"	"	1866, 137	"	.50
"	"	1870, 4	"	1.50
"	"	1871, 4	"	1.50
"	"	1872, 49	"	1.75
"	"	1873, 226	"	1.50
"	"	1874, 436	"	1.50
"	"	1875, 44	"	1.50
"	"	1876, 450	"	2.00

Also in the custody of the Treasurer, a Medal and Diploma, awarded to the National Educational Association of the United States at the International Exposition of Chili, in 1875.

J. ORMOND WILSON, Treasurer.

REPORT OF AUDITING COMMITTEE.

The undersigned have examined the foregoing account of the Treasurer of the National Educational Association, with the vouchers therefor, and find the same to be correct, and a balance of \$246.50 to be due W. D. HENKLE on account of Publication Committee, 1876.

JOHN HANCOCK,
WM. F. PHELPS,
ED. S. JOYNES,
Auditing Committee.

August 13, 1877.

ACCOUNT OF THE SECRETARY, W. D. HENKLE.

<i>National Educational Association,</i>	<i>Dr.</i>
To Balance due at last settlement.....	\$ 53 13
" Cash paid for printing 1000 vols. of Baltimore Proceedings..	1,006 88
" 6 boxes for shipping sheets from Salem to Columbus, and volumes from Columbus to Washington.....	6 00
" 3 boxes for shipping 3 lots to purchasers direct from Bindery	2 15
" Cartages and freights.....	8 79
" Expressage on Cuts for Mrs. Kraus's paper.....	75
" " " Olney's paper.....	25
" " " 50 volumes of 1875 from Columbus to Wash- ington.....	2 35
" Printing circulars to life-members.....	50
" " 2000 programmes for Louisville meeting.....	18 00
" " 500 membership tickets.....	3 50
" 500 envelopes.....	50
" 605 1-cent stamps.....	6 05
" 148 postal cards.....	1 48
" Stamped envelopes, 3-cent and 1-cent.....	3 87
	\$1,114 00

Calendar of Meetings.

NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

1857—*PHILADELPHIA, PA.*

Organized.

1858.—*CINCINNATI, OHIO.*

Z. RICHARDS, *Pres.*, J. W. BULKLEY, *Sec.*, A. J. RICKOFF, *Treas.*

1859.—*WASHINGTON, D. C.*

A. J. RICKOFF, *Pres.*, J. W. BULKLEY, *Sec.*, C. S. PENNELL, *Treas.*

1860.—*BUFFALO, N. Y.*

J. W. BULKLEY, *Pres.*, Z. RICHARDS, *Sec.*, O. C. WIGHT, *Treas.*

1861.—*No session.*

1862.—*No session.*

1863.—*CHICAGO, ILL.*

JOHN D. PHILBRICK, *Pres.*, JAS. CRUIKSHANK, *Sec.*, O. C. WIGHT, *Treas.*

1864.—*OGDENSBURGH, N. Y.*

W. H. WELLS, *Pres.*, DAVID N. CAMP, *Sec.*, Z. RICHARDS, *Treas.*

1865.—*HARRISBURGH, PA.*

S. S. GREENE, *Pres.*, JAS. CRUIKSHANK, *Sec.*, Z. RICHARDS, *Treas.*

1866.—*INDIANAPOLIS, IND.*

J. P. WICKERSHAM, *Pres.*, S. H. WHITE, *Sec.*, S. P. BATES, *Treas.*

1867.—*No session.*

1868.—*NASHVILLE, TENN.*

J. M. GREGORY, *Pres.*, L. VAN BOKKELEN, *Sec.*, JAS. CRUIKSHANK, *Treas.*

1869.—*TRENTON, N. J.*

L. VAN BOKKELEN, *Pres.*, W. E. CROSBY, *Sec.*, A. L. BARBER, *Treas.*

1870.—*CLEVELAND, OHIO.*

D. B. HAGAR, *Pres.*, A. P. MARBLE, *Sec.*, W. E. CROSBY, *Treas.*

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION.

1871.—*ST. LOUIS, MO.*

J. L. PICKARD, *Pres.*, W. E. CROSBY, *Sec.*, JOHN HANCOCK, *Treas.*

1872.—*BOSTON, MASS.*

E. E. WHITE, *Pres.*, S. H. WHITE, *Sec.*, JOHN HANCOCK, *Treas.*

1873.—*ELMIRA, N. Y.*

B. G. NORTHROP, *Pres.*, S. H. WHITE, *Sec.*, JOHN HANCOCK, *Treas.*

1874.—*DETROIT, MICH.*

S. H. WHITE, *Pres.*, A. P. MARBLE, *Sec.*, JOHN HANCOCK, *Treas.*

1875.—*MINNEAPOLIS, MINN.*

W. T. HARRIS, *Pres.*, W. R. ABBOT, *Sec.*, A. P. MARBLE, *Treas.*

1876.—*BALTIMORE, MD.*

W. F. PHELPS, *Pres.*, W. D. HENKLE, *Sec.*, A. P. MARBLE, *Treas.*

1877.—*LOUISVILLE, KY.*

M. A. NEWELL, *Pres.*, W. D. HENKLE, *Sec.*, J. ORMOND WILSON, *Treas.*

OFFICERS FOR 1877-8.

GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

JOHN HANCOCK, Dayton, Ohio, - - - President.
H. A. M. HENDERSON, Frankfort, Ky., - First Vice-President.
W. D. HENKLE, Salem, Ohio, - - - Secretary.
J. ORMOND WILSON, Washington, D. C., - - Treasurer.
[For Vice-Presidents, and Counsellors, see page 32.]

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER INSTRUCTION.

E. T. TAPPAN, Gambier, Ohio, - - - President.
E. S. JOYNES, Nashville, Tenn., - - - Vice-President.
HUGH BOYD, Mt. Vernon, Iowa. - - - Secretary.

DEPARTMENT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS.

WM. J. PHELPS, Whitewater, Wis., - - - President.
T. M. MARSHALL, Glenville, W. Va., - - Vice-President.
GRACE C. BIBB, St. Louis, - - - Secretary.

DEPARTMENT OF ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS.

GEO. P. BROWN, Indianapolis, Ind., - - - President.
SARAH E. RICHMOND, Baltimore, Md., - Vice-President.
WM. J. DAVIS, Louisville, Ky., - - - Secretary.

DEPARTMENT OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION.

J. D. RUNKLE, Boston, Mass., - - - President.
L. S. THOMPSON, Lafayette, Ind., - - - Vice-President.
CHAS. Y. LACY, Minneapolis, Minn. - - - Secretary.

DEPARTMENT OF SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENCE.

J. P. WICKERSHAM, Harrisburg, Pa., - - - President.
JAMES H. SMART, Minneapolis, Ind., - Vice-President.
R. W. STEVENSON, Columbus, Ohio, - - - Secretary.

COMMITTEE ON TRANSPORTATION.

ALEX. HOGG, College Stat'n, Texas, E. H. COOK, Columbus, Ohio,
J. B. MERWIN, St. Louis, Mo., Mrs. M. A. STONE, New Milford, Ct.,
S. H. WHITE, Peoria, Ill., J. P. WICKERSHAM, Harrisb'g, Pa.,
W. A. BELL, Indianapolis, Ind.







